The Nation.

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The Week.

THE recent State election in Georgia is the last of the preliminary contests which precede the Presidential election. Twenty years ago there were "October elections" in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Iowa, which engaged the attention of the whole country a month before the Presidential contest was fought out, and the "moral effect" of which was regarded as of the greatest importance by both parties. In each State these October elections became ultimately so demoralizing and discreditable that, one by one, they abandoned the system; Pennsylvania instituting the reform in 1873, Indiana following in 1881, Iowa (and West Virginia also) in 1884, and Ohio in 1885. The only States that still cling to the system of a separate State election a few weeks before the Presidential election are Vermont and Maine in the North, both of which vote in September; and, in the South, Alabama in August, Arkansas in September, Florida and Georgia in October. The result of the Georgia election has been awaited with much interest, as first the Farmers' Alliance, and later the People's party, have been exceptionally strong in that State. Moreover, under the advice of the Republican National Committee, the Republicans in Georgia were instructed to cast their solid vote for the People's party, so that all the conditions seemed favorable for a good showing by the opposition to the Democracy. But the result is an overwhelming Democratic majority on the largest vote cast in Georgia in any election for a score of years. This result shows that there is no longer the slightest question about the South's being solid for Cleveland in November. In Florida on Tuesday week the People's party had also met defeat, and the Arkansas election in September was equally one-sided. Alabama is the only Southern State where there has seemed the slightest chance of an opposition victory in November, and the Georgia result cannot fail to help Democratic chances in the neighboring State greatly.

The address which the Massachusetts Independents have put forth in advocacy of Cleveland's election is a notable document in many ways, and especially so for the manner in which it sets forth the offences and shortcomings of President Harrison in the matter of civil-service reform. The list of journalists whom the President has appointed to office has passed out of the public memory somewhat. The Massachusetts address quotes the words of Daniel Webster on such an abuse of patronage, but there is a nearer and higher authority than Daniel Webster in the person of one of the chief beneficiaries, the Republican candidate for the Vice-Presidency, the late Minister to France. When he, as editor of the *Tribune*, was advocating the election of Horace Greeley to the Presidency because of the maladministration of President Grant, Mr. Whitelaw Reid said, on July 3, 1872, in speaking of Grant's use of patronage:

> "In time the poor relations were all provided for; even the President's father had a post-office; and then patronage took a new form. Heretofore it had been sheer nepotism; now the renomination came near, and it changed to political corruption. Compacts were made with Senators and local politicians to control the Convention. *The country press was literally bought with public offices.* . . . Grant has shown how the prostitution of great power to base uses can lower the whole tone of political society."

That reads almost as if it were written about President Harrison. If he did not give his father a post-office, he gave his own brother a Federal marshalship, his father-in-law another Federal office, his son's father-in-law a $5,000 Federal office in Utah, and to several other family relatives lucrative public positions. He did not stop with buying the country press, but "literally bought" the leading newspapers of the country, including the organ of Whitelaw Reid.

Congressman Harter of Ohio is making a great effort to accomplish what has hitherto failed in several instances, viz., the drawing of the "Napoleon of Protection," Mr. McKinley, into a joint debate. Mr. Harter has been put by the Republican Legislature of Ohio into a gerrymandered district with a nominal Republican majority of nearly 2,000. He is making a thorough canvass of it, arguing, with his well-known clearness and courage, tariff and currency questions. In spite of their majority in the district, the Republicans are so uneasy about it that they are sending McKinley, Sherman, and Foraker into it to counteract the effect of Mr. Harter's speeches, and are paying more attention to it than to any other district in the State. One would think that here was a field which McKinley would hail with joy as the most desirable ground possible for a joint debate. He would be among friends, and his great intellectual forces would have a chance to play in the presence of the highest appreciation. Yet he is as shy as usual about accepting Mr. Harter's challenge, and the Republican campaign managers are as shy as he is. What a queer position for a Napoleon to be in!

Senator Sherman spoke at Cooper Union on Monday, and his speech related chiefly to the question of bank-notes and the Democratic platform, which calls for a repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on the notes of State banks. It has been hard work, trying to pump interest into this question, although several eminent statesmen, including President Harrison, have tried their hands at it. What Senator Sherman says on the subject calls for notice on account of its ingenuity rather than of its soundness. Mr. Sherman is noted for saying very wise things in Congress on financial questions and very foolish things on the stump. He said, during the last session of Congress (June 1, 1892), that "the people of this country—whether rightly or wrongly is not for me to say—are not in favor of the longer continuance of the national banking system beyond that period which will enable them to wind up as banks of circulation when the payment of the public interest-bearing bonds is made." Then he continued:

> "Mr. President, I am therefore in favor of regarding the popular will as being practically expressed *that we shall not continue this banking system longer than the existence of the bonds that are outstanding.* The people are not willing to take as security for the notes they hold any less security than the Government of the United States of America, whether that be in the form of bonds or in the declaration of the Government to maintain the notes."

Here are two propositions. One is, that the people have decreed the end of the national bank-note system within a certain time not very distant. The other is, that Mr. Sherman himself is in favor of acquiescing in that decision. But the whole drift of his speech on Monday was that that system ought to continue, and that he (Mr. Sherman) could show how it might be continued even after the national bonds are paid off and retired.

Mr. Edward Atkinson, in a letter to the Boston *Herald*, points out that a repeal of the tax on State bank-notes does not of itself imply any diminution of the existing national bank-notes, or of the greenbacks, or of the coin certificates. This proper reminder fits in very well with Mr. Sherman's suggestion that the national bank-note system may be continued by substituting other security, "which will be beyond all danger of failure," in place of the national bonds. If such security can be found, why may it not be made a condition of the repeal of the 10 per cent. tax that all State bank-notes shall be secured in the same way as the new national bank-notes? Assuming that the 10 per cent. tax is itself constitutional (and it has been so adjudged by the Supreme Court), any lesser requirement may be annexed to the privilege of issuing such notes. Any State bank may issue circulating notes now by paying the tax. Congress may lower the tax or repeal it altogether and substitute other conditions for the privilege. We are not in favor of an unconditional repeal of that tax, and we have not heard from or heard of anybody who is in favor of it.

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The country has become so habituated to official decisions from the Interior Department, bearing on the subject of pensions, which read like campaign documents, that there was little surprise on Saturday when there was published another such decision, in the shape of a letter from Assistant Secretary Bussey to the Commissioner of Pensions. This ruling overthrew the previous practice in regard to disabilities which developed after the close of the war, and admitted such disabilities as a valid ground for an increase of pensions. It also allowed such increase to be granted upon lay testimony, regardless of a failure to show by record or medical testimony that they were incurred in the service, and in spite of the fact that they were not alleged in the original application for a pension. It was introduced by two or three "heads," one of which reads: "The arbitrary rule of the Cleveland Administration in adjudicating increase claims based upon alleged 'new' disabilities overruled by the Harrison Administration in the interest of meritorious applicants"; and the body of the decision was as flagrant in its partisanship as this introduction. In short, it was nothing more nor less than a Republican campaign document issued by one of the executive departments.

It appears that even Secretary Noble has some glimmering sense of the impropriety of the performance, and since the publication of the ruling a desperate attempt has been made to disavow responsibility for it. This has been carried so far as the dismissal of the subordinate who prepared the text of the decision, although he declares that he wrote it at the direction of the Assistant Secretary of the Interior, read it over to him, and received his approval of it. There is no reason to doubt the story of this subordinate, because what he did was only in line with what his superiors have been doing all along. There has been hardly any attempt to conceal the fact that the Pension Bureau has been a part of the Republican Machine ever since Harrison came in, and Republican organs throughout the country are printing tables to show how extravagant the Administration has been in its allowances of pensions. It is all a part of the policy which aims at winning votes by the offer of special benefits, and the clerk who has lost his place for his zeal ought at least to be provided for by the Republican National Committee.

Simultaneously with the announcement that Quay is expected to take an active part in the Republican campaign, comes the verdict of the jury at Meadville, convicting of embezzlement George W. Delamater, whom Quay made the Republican candidate for Governor of Pennsylvania two years ago. It will be remembered that a month after his defeat in the election his banking-house suspended, and it soon appeared that he had been for some time receiving deposits and making away with the money. He was arraigned under a law which makes such conduct a crime punishable by a term in the penitentiary, and, although there will be the usual attempts to get him off, it seems likely that he will receive his deserts. Yet, if he had received 17,000 more votes than were actually cast for him two years ago, this embezzler would have been the Governor of the State, and the State funds would undoubtedly have been used to rescue him from his financial troubles. In other words, Delamater was running not only for the executive mansion, but away from the penitentiary, and, but for the independence of some thousands of voters, the man who ought to wear the garb of a criminal would have been the chief executive of the State. The whole story of Quayism in politics is told in this career.

Pennsylvania is having great trouble now with its new ballot law, and loud complaints are heard concerning the size and clumsiness of the ballots which must be provided. All persons disposed to charge the Australian system with these annoyances should bear in mind that Pennsylvania's law was repudiated by ballot-reform advocates at the time of its adoption. It is not a ballot-reform law in the proper sense of the term, but a Quay Republican law. When the Quay Republicans found that they must yield to public sentiment in the matter, they took the measure which the friends of ballot-reform had drawn, and filled it with all the tricks and devices which they could concoct, in the hope of destroying its character and making it so impracticable that it would bring the reform into disfavor. If it proves in practice to be a defective and more or less ineffective measure, they, and not ballot-reformers, must be held accountable for it.

Mr. Charles J. Harrah, President of the Midvale, Pa., Steel Company, has publicly declared for the doctrine of free raw materials, and has received an awful lecture in consequence from the Philadelphia *Manufacturer*. Being scarcely exposed to the usual setting down as a mere "doctrinaire" who knows nothing whatever about the "actual facts," Mr. Harrah is classed with those manufacturers who are "so selfish and greedy as to desire to profit by the injury of their fellow-men," in contrast, we suppose, to those protectionist manufacturers who are well known to pay out all their profits in wages and gifts to the poor—after deducting, of course, their contributions to the Republican campaign fund. Mr. Harrah's conduct is also accounted for on the ground of the enjoyment he derives from "the publicity which comes from the expression of eccentric opinions in the newspapers." This would seem to show that he had mistaken his calling and ought to turn editor at once. On the staff of the *Manufacturer*, for instance, we venture to say that he could find opportunity to express more eccentric opinions in each Presidential campaign than he could in a dozen years as President of a manufacturing company. But he is also fatally mistaken, he is told, in not being able "to understand that overthrow of a part of the protective system must involve the overthrow of the whole system." This is the old "howling-wilderness" and "grass in-the-streets" argument for protection. If the wool-growers of Ohio are not given what they believe to be their proper share of the plunder, they will make Providence an heap and Woonsocket a desolation. If the Lake Superior iron-miners are not allowed to shut out foreign ores, they will shut up every rolling-mill in Pennsylvania. Only on these terms of compact between dividers of the spoil can the great and beneficent system of protection exist.

Both the outgoing and the incoming Governors of Vermont address the Legislature at the opening of its session, and there has been much curiosity as to what they would say regarding the Australian ballot system. Gov. Page, who was just surrendering his office, sustains the law most heartily. Among other things, he says: "He serves his party best who serves his country best; and the broad-minded citizen, even though he be ever so strong a partisan, will welcome any system that compels political parties to bring forward their best, knowing that, if they do otherwise, a discriminating voter will place his seal of condemnation upon its unpatriotic action." He says that he "shall ever take pride in the fact that during my administration Vermont placed herself squarely abreast with that better element in American politics which is to-day everywhere demanding a freer, purer ballot, North and South." He administers a severe rebuke to those politicians who, under the lead of the Chairman of the Republican State Committee, have been calling for the repeal of the law. On the other hand, the new Governor, Mr. Fuller, manifests no such enthusiasm in behalf of the reform as his predecessor, but this is perhaps not strange, considering that, under the secret ballot, he received a majority nearly 10,000 less than was given the Republican candidate for Governor four years ago. Ex-Gov. Page may not have meant to give Gov. Fuller a hit, but nothing could be more pat than his commendation of the new system as one "that compels political parties to bring forward their best," since it is notorious that Fuller was much short of the best candidate that the Republicans could have presented. The new Governor thinks that "there can be no question that this law has operated to defeat the will of many voters," and he hardly conceals the fact that he would be pleased to get rid of the system, although he contents himself with suggesting "further legislation to perfect

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and carry out this reform." While the party managers would be glad to repeal the law, the people generally are so well pleased with the new system that there is happily no danger of its abolition.

On landing in this country last week Minister Egan spoke of the high regard in which he was held by the Americans resident in Chili, and instanced as a proof of it the banquet which they tendered him in Santiago on the eve of his departure. This hardly tallies with the account of the affair telegraphed at the time, or with an article about it published in the Valparaiso *Heraldo* of August 30. That paper gives a complete list of the twenty-seven persons present at the dinner, and has some very unpleasant things to say of several citizens who figure on it. It also states that the banquet was paid for by Egan and two men who have enormous claims pending against Chili, pointing out that the invitations laid special emphasis upon the fact that the meal would be altogether gratis. It adds that of those Americans in Valparaiso who were invited, the only one to go was the agent of the New York house of Flint & Co., the head of which made himself famous by prematurely revealing Blaine's friendship with Balmaceda and the $30,000,000 of nitrates. We do not vouch for the truth of all these assertions, but simply cite them as falling in with many other bits of evidence going to show that Egan's popularity with the American colony in Chili is not so great as he would be glad to have the public believe. It will be remembered, for example, that he was not invited to the patriotic meeting held by that colony on July 4, and one would have supposed that his tremendous patriotism, to say nothing of his official position, would naturally have given him the first place in such a gathering.

Some recent events in France show how baseless is the claim that there is something distinctively "American" in protectionism. At a congress of Socialists held at Roubaix, to which the Socialists of Belgium were invited, all sang in chorus:

"Les peuples sont pour nous des frères,"

and the doctrine of "international solidarity" was enthusiastically advocated. No more contests of nationalities were to take place, but the common people of all lands were to unite in a war against the "bourgeoisie." Scarcely had the echoes of those songs and speeches died away when a violent outbreak occurred among the miners of the Pas-de-Calais on account of the employment of some Belgian workmen. The doctrines of the "International" were forgotten, and the Belgian "brothers" were denounced as foreign pauper laborers come to take the bread from the mouths of Frenchmen, and the windows of their lodging-houses were broken. Their immediate discharge was demanded by their French comrades, and the assurances of the mining companies that wages were not to be lowered, and that the foreigners were employed simply for lack of other laborers, were received with shouts of "Down with the Belgians!" It was declared that the mines were the property of the French nation and should be worked only by Frenchmen. The places of the Belgians belonged to Frenchmen who had been discharged for their political activity or because they had taken part in strikes, and the companies were informed that these men must be reëmployed and the Belgians dismissed, or a strike would be ordered. On the other side of the frontier the news of this disturbance had a damaging effect upon "solidarity," some of the Belgian miners there parading with a red flag bearing the inscription, "Death to the French!" and pillaging the house of a woman reported to be of that nationality.

These events have a sufficient resemblance to some recent occurrences in our own country to make it apparent that the same leaven was at work in both cases. By an interesting but not properly surprising coincidence, they have suggested to a French journal, the *Temps*, the same moral which was here drawn from the Homestead trouble. It observes that much has been said of national industry, of national production, of national interests, and that the most egoistic and interested calculations have masked themselves under the cover of the most ardent patriotism. Is there, then, anything remarkable, it inquires, in the attitude of the miners who protest against competition upon the ground of nationality? The manufacturers have obtained laws which impose protective duties upon foreign goods, but the laborers have no laws that protect their wages, and in the case of these miners they simply enforced a protection that the law had neglected to provide. Their patriotism may have been irregular in its manifestation, but, measured from the protectionist standpoint, it was genuine. If the Belgian miners were in need and were willing to work for low wages, all the more reason for excluding them. If there was a scarcity of laborers, that would have led to a rise of wages, and the importation of foreign laborers would counteract this tendency, and should therefore be prohibited. The argument is unanswerable from the protectionist standpoint, and, with things going as they are in France, it would not be surprising if the trade-unions should insist upon embodying it in legislation.

The question who is to succeed Tennyson as Laureate will probably be the main interest of intellectual England during the next few weeks. There is, unhappily, no heir apparent to the illustrious poet, nobody whose title to his place is clear. In quality of verse Swinburne undoubtedly stands at the head of the list, and Mr. Gladstone is in a measure committed to this view of him; but his personality is unpleasing and he has made poetry a furious political partisan. Part, and no small part, of Tennyson's equipment for the place he held in the national affection and admiration was the purity of his life. He was essentially a gentleman in the highest and best sense of the term. It will be hard for the Queen to accept and for Mr. Gladstone to propose anybody for the laureateship of whom this cannot be said. Sir Edwin Arnold's claims do not seem to be even considered by anybody, although Major Pond, when he came to this country last fall, put forth an amusing tale of his succession to the laureateship having been settled, and of his having had to get a special permit both from the Queen and from Lord Salisbury to come to this country, the Laureate *in posse* not being allowed to absent himself from England when the Laureate *in esse* was old or infirm, lest the kingdom should be left even for a day face to face with the horrors of a vacancy. Even if this were true, we fear his memorial verses on Tennyson in his *Daily Telegraph* would settle Sir Edwin's fate, for they are enough to make the great poet turn in his grave and exasperate his family.

The Baring liquidation drags its slow length along, and the chances of the guarantors escaping without having to make good a final deficiency grow less. With every partial realization on the securities held, the water oozes out of what is left. Thus, in the six months from February 29 to August 31 the liabilities were reduced from £7,017,666 to £5,113,613, but in the same period the value of the assets declined from £10,338,757 to £8,319,261, or $200,000 more than did the liabilities. This shows how every fresh attempt to market the depreciated bonds only sends them down lower in price. At the meeting of the Bank of England in the middle of September the opinion was general that it would not be possible to complete the liquidation within the next twelve months, as originally planned, and that it would be necessary to form some new kind of trust to nurse the Baring securities along. The immense losses to English investors who were caught in the South American crash are enough of themselves to account for a good part of the financial distress under which England has been laboring. There is a suggestion here for our Republican philanthropists who preach the new doctrine that our highest happiness is to be found in causing all the misery possible in other countries. If we were but to repudiate all our national and railroad bonds held abroad, we could bring about a wretchedness beside which all that McKinley has caused would not figure at all in the rejoicings of good Americans.

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MORE ABOUT MONEY IN ELECTIONS.

MR. WAYNE MACVEAGH has joined the band of eminent seceders from the Republican party which contains Judge Gresham and others. The things he cannot stand any longer are the Force Bill, the McKinley Bill, the corruption practised and necessary to defend the high tariff, the huge Government purchases of useless silver, the extravagant pension system, and the vast importations of degraded Europeans to supply labor for the protected industries. All these things, of course, have concomitants equally objectionable, for the enumeration of which we must refer our readers to the letter itself. It is not long, but it is lucid and very closely packed. We think, however, it might all be summed up by saying that Mr. MacVeagh objects to the conversion of the Government into a commercial enterprise for the benefit of a small body of private individuals. When this fact is made plain, all the rest follows, almost as a matter of course. The Republican party has opened a shop such as the mediæval monarchs used to keep when they sold monopolies, places, and titles for cash down. It has gone on for years advertising the sale of trade privileges, and the number of its customers has steadily increased, and the price of its wares has steadily risen, and it has steadily extended its field of operations. Like the railroads, too, it has had to open new branches, in order to secure business which some rival might take away from it.

There is little doubt that in the beginning it intended to confine itself strictly to trade with manufacturers engaged in competition with the wicked foreigner, and that it entered into large and lucrative contracts with this class. But it soon found that it was impossible to fulfil these contracts under a protective policy pure and simple. To live up to its engagements, it had to have at every election an increasing number of votes, not only because the population was increasing, but because the voters, on finding out that the elections were a business transaction with money in them, became more and more exacting, and in fact began to demand that they should be "let in." They would perhaps have continued to "vote as they shot," or vote against "outrages" on the negro, very much longer had they thought that the managers were living on the same elevated plane of sentiment. But as soon as they discovered that these gentlemen were in business, they naturally began to demand their share of the profits.

Out of this demand have grown the huge purchases of silver and the huge pensions and the reckless bribery of voters. This is, of course, a process which must come to an end through sheer exhaustion of resources some time, but it takes a long while to exhaust a rich nation. The case of the Republican party is very like that of Tammany in Tweed's day, and, indeed, like all cases of conspiracy against somebody else's money. Tweed might have lasted years longer had he only had to rob for himself, for Sweeny, Hall, and Connolly. The city could have stood him and them possibly for his whole lifetime. But he had to divide with an ever-enlarging circle of confederates, and the scale of his operations had therefore to be increased correspondingly, until further thieving was impossible, and the end came. So it is with the Republican party. The manufacturers ask for more tariff every year, and more tariff cannot be supplied without more votes, and more votes cannot be had without more money, and more money cannot be spent without discovery, or without making demands on the manufacturers which more than exhaust the profits of the tariff.

To get an idea of the difficulties of the situation for the party just now, one has only to compare it with that of 1888. Wanamaker raised, it is said, and he has himself virtually admitted it, $400,000 for Quay in that year. He tried to get as much out of the Pacific railroads in the last fortnight of the canvass, but failed. But Wanamaker was not known then, except as a pious shopkeeper in Philadelphia, and he could, when making his political collections, have got board, lodging, and a certificate of "Christian character" in the office of nearly every religious newspaper in the country. But fancy Wanamaker starting out on a similar errand now, and trying to put a religious complexion on his activities. Why, every dog in the country would howl as he drew near the tills. Take also Quay's case. How many people knew Quay in 1888, except as an adroit political manager? How many knew anything about his methods? How easy it was for party newspapers, without being ridiculous, to say, as one paper said, "Hail, Quay! hero of a hard-fought, brilliantly won field—the right man in the right place." What boy of twelve is there in the country who does not know all about him now? The fact that he is only too well known has, in truth, been recognized by him and his confederates in the frankest way by his withdrawal from the Chairmanship of the National Committee. In the present campaign it is impossible to turn his skill to full account. The case of Dudley is somewhat similar. This man was able to direct the purchase of votes in Indiana from an office in New York in 1888; now he is relegated wholly to some sort of "private business." His usefulness to the party is at an end. Moreover, votes have gone up in price. The very careful and trustworthy observer who has been travelling in the interior of this State for the *Evening Post*, reports that votes which could be had for "the defence of American industry" for five dollars in 1888 are now held firm at twenty dollars apiece.

All this shows that the "Republican Business Men" are—we do not say at the end of their resources, but struggling with increasing difficulties of all sorts. Even if the money comes in as well as it did—and we learn on excellent authority that the contrary is the truth—much more money is needed, and the most skilful collectors and dispensers are either in hiding or living in retirement. The coming election will in fact be something in the nature of a police raid on a gambling-house. If it succeeds, a most nefarious industry will be broken up—we trust, for ever. If it fails, the process of national demoralization will continue until a century or two will be needed to effect a cure.

CONCERNING THE HON. DAVID MARTIN.

THE *Tribune* has at last concluded that it is necessary to give some account of the work which Mr. "Dave" Martin is doing for the Republican National Committee in this city. According to this, he has during the last two weeks been "collecting the large mass of information which he possesses of *prospective* Democratic rascality in New York city, and in organizing a department for the detection and punishment of naturalization, registration, and voting frauds." Some of this information he has communicated to the *Tribune*, giving the addresses of a considerable number of lodging-houses, "and dance and lewd houses," which he foresees that the Tammany people are going to fill with "colonists" before the election. Now, there is no doubt that Mr. Martin is eminently fitted for such detective work, because he has himself been a practitioner of the arts which the *Tribune* says he is now engaged in exposing. In 1872 it was proved that he was the head of a band of repeaters in Philadelphia and was engaged in the plot which the *Tribune*, on the 9th of October in that year, thus described:

> "Philadelphia is flooded with New York ruffians, who have gone over there with the purpose of outvoting the people of that city by means of their abominable machinery. The notorious 'The' Allen, crony of O'Brien and particular friend of Mr. Roscoe Conkling, is among the leaders of these scamps; and 'Whitey Bob,' 'Blacksmith Dan,' and other well-known bullies and election thieves are hand-and-glove with Hartranft's penitentiary gang in Philadelphia. This scandalous plot against suffrage is conducted by Grant officials."

Mr. Martin was a member of this "penitentiary gang," and therefore knows exactly how all forms of election frauds are carried out. But the place where he could be useful as a detective is Philadelphia, where he is perfectly familiar with the whole criminal class, knows their haunts, their modes of perpetrating frauds and of evading justice, and probably has got in black and white the exact amount of accommodation which can be obtained on a pinch in all the low lodging and dance-houses in that city. With the New York cheats, bullies, receivers, colonizers, and with their lairs and "boozing kens," he can have but a very slight acquaintance, if any. The Republican Committee here must be able to lay their hands on a hundred men in New York, each of whom would be worth ten Martins in detecting and exposing prospective Tammany frauds. If, when Inspector Byrnes

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was bent on frustrating some great conspiracy against order or property in this city he were to import a few local criminals from Cincinnati or Chicago to superintend the work, he would expose himself to ridicule if not to removal for admitted incompetency; so that we must pronounce the *Tribune's* explanation of Mr. Martin's presence among us as ludicrously inadequate, though of course it may pass muster with many of its rural readers. It is certainly much better than total silence.

In fact, in these days of the railroad, the telegraph, the printing-press, and the public school, all attempts to explain a notorious rascal's absence from home by saying that he is travelling about for the detection and prevention of fraud, must necessarily prove a failure. The inquiring, pyrrhonic spirit of the age is fatal to presumptions of this nature. In no country have they less chance of success than in this. Say what you will, the great body of the American people *will* believe that when Mr. Martin travels, he travels in the pursuit of his ordinary avocations; that when he reaches "a distant city," as the novelists say, he goes promptly to work at the arts by which, amid the scenes of his childhood, he rose to fame and fortune.

This view will be strengthened, too, the *Tribune* must remember, by the fact that at every Presidential election of late years so much of the work done by the Republican National Committee is of a "secret" and "confidential" nature. For instance, when Mr. Wanamaker gave the $400,000 to Quay, he "did not insist on knowing" what Quay did with the money. "He did not want to know," and yet he must have known, or had strong reason to believe, at that very time, that Quay had robbed the State Treasury of $260,000. So again, when Vice-President Arthur was eulogizing Dorsey for "carrying Indiana" in 1880, he refused "to go into the minute secrets of the campaign because he saw the reporters present." So, also, Dudley's circular in 1888, prescribing the mode in which the "floaters" were to be brought to the polls "in blocks of five," was of course "private." And this year Mr. Hackett, the Chairman of the New York Committee, in calling for "particular service for the Republican cause," marks his circular "Confidential," and points out that the service will call for "the exercise of caution and the ability to keep a secret," although the service consists in simply sending "the name of a Democrat whom you believe can be induced to vote the Republican ticket this fall."

Now, the work of inducing people to vote the Republican ticket by argumentative persuasion cannot be considered secret or confidential work. Persuaders by argument, in fact, seek for their work all the publicity possible. Nor is the name of a man who can probably be induced to change his political opinion by argument, a thing only to be whispered into a hole in a tree, or only revealed under the seal of confession. In fact, the only possible reason for throwing the veil of secrecy over such a transaction is the disreputable character of the "inducement." That is to say, the reason why the service Mr. Hackett asks for is "confidential" is, that it consists in finding out in each locality who the "floaters" are, and letting the Committee know to whom the money to bribe them is to be sent. For the superintendence of this particular service for the Republican party there is no better person than Mr. Martin. To believe that he has been brought on here for any service of a different character, is to disregard all the rules of probability which govern men in the ordinary conduct of life. Of the art of discovering persons who have not fully made up their minds which ticket to vote, Mr. Martin is a master excelled only by Quay. If Quay comes on here, as it is now said he is likely to do, it will show simply that Martin needs help—not that some other kind of work than his needs to be done. That he and Quay wander about the country in search of jobs of reform is a theory which would extract a smile from most Americans, even in the very article of death.

CHIEF-JUSTICE PAXSON'S CHARGE.

THE charge which Chief-Justice Paxson of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court delivered on Monday to the Grand Jury in the Court of Oyer and Terminer at Pittsburgh in regard to the Homestead cases will attract the attention of the whole country. It is an extraordinary event for the presiding judge of the highest tribunal in the State to appear in a county court, but the Constitution of Pennsylvania makes the justices of the Supreme Court justices ex-officio of the Court of Oyer and Terminer of every county, and Judge Paxson was entirely right in considering the present occasion grave enough to justify the exercise of this right.

The Chief Justice began by reviewing the familiar facts connected with the disturbances of last summer—that there was a disagreement as to wages, concerning only a small portion of the Carnegie Company's employees, and those receiving the highest pay; that, as a mutually satisfactory agreement could not be reached, the company closed its works and discharged its men; that it then proposed to operate its works by the employment of other men, not members of the Amalgamated Association; that the latter thereupon organized an "Advisory Committee," which proceeded to take charge of the affairs of Homestead, and ordered the mechanics, laborers, and other employees of the works, amounting to about 3,000, whose wages were not affected by the proposed change, and who had entered into a new agreement with the company upon the terms of their old contracts, to refuse to work until the Amalgamated Association should be recognized and its terms agreed to; that it allowed no persons to enter the mills, nor even any strangers to enter the town, without its consent; and that it formed a military organization, establishing a girdle of pickets by which the works and the town were guarded like a military encampment; that all discussion of the wage question was positively prohibited; that a force sent by the Sheriff of the county was driven off with threats; and, finally, that the brutal assault of July 6 was made upon the force of Pinkertons which had been sent to protect the property of the company.

The Chief Justice lays down the fundamental principles which govern the relation of employer and employee most clearly and forcibly. This relation, he says, "is one of contract merely. Neither party has a right to coerce the other into the making of a contract to which the mind does not assent. The employer cannot compel his employee to work a day longer than he sees fit, nor than his contract calls for, nor for a wage that is unsatisfactory to him. It follows that the employee cannot compel his employer to give him work or to enter into a contract of hire; much less can he dictate the terms of employment." It follows that, when the Homestead negotiations came to an end, the contract relations ceased, and the men had no further claim upon the company than has a domestic servant upon a private employer after leaving his service. "Nor does it make any difference that a large number were discharged at one time; their aggregate rights rise no higher than their rights as individuals."

These fundamental principles are thus applied to the Homestead case:

> "When the company shut down its works and discharged its men, it was acting strictly in the line of the law; it could not compel the men to work, nor the men compel the company to employ them; no arrangement could be made in such regard except in the nature of a contract agreed upon by the parties. Upon this subject their rights were mutual. The company had the undoubted right to protect its property; for this purpose it could lawfully employ as many men as it saw proper, and arm them if necessary. It was an act of unlawful violence to prevent their landing upon the property of the company. That unlawful violence amounted at least to riot upon the part of all concerned in it; if life was taken in pursuance of a purpose to resist the landing of the men by violence, the offence was murder, and perhaps treason. The rights of the men were, to refuse to work unless their terms were acceded to, and to persuade others to join them in such refusal; but the law will sustain them no further. The moment they attempted to control the works and to prevent, by violence or threats of violence, other laborers from going to work there, they placed themselves outside the pale of the law. It cannot be tolerated for a moment that one laborer shall say to another laborer: 'You shall not work for this man for that wage without my consent,' and then enforce such command by brutal violence upon his person; and what will not be permitted to one man to do will not be permitted to an organization of men."

It is the assertion of the doctrine that the conduct of the men constituted treason which renders the Chief Justice's charge most notable. This offence is defined by an act of the Pennsylvania Legislature passed in 1860, which provides that, "if

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any person, owing allegiance to the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, shall levy war against the same or shall adhere to the enemies thereof, giving them aid or comfort within the State or elsewhere, or shall be thereon convicted in open court, on testimony of two witnesses of the same overt act of treason whereof he shall stand indicted, such person shall, on conviction, be adjudged guilty of treason against the Commonwealth, and be sentenced to pay a fine not exceeding $2,000 and undergo an imprisonment by separate and solitary confinement, at labor, not exceeding twelve years." There has never been any prosecution under this act, so that there are no precedents. Judge Paxson draws a distinction between "a mere mob, collected upon the impulse of the moment, without any definite object beyond the gratification of its sudden passions," and a case "when a large number of men arm and organize themselves by divisions and companies, appoint officers, and engage in a common purpose to defy the law, to resist its officers, and to deprive any portion of their fellow-citizens of the rights to which they are entitled under the Constitution and laws." In the first case, he says, the mob does not commit treason, although it destroys property and attacks human life, but the action taken by the organized body of men "is a levying of war against the State, and the offence is treason." He proceeds to define the offence more at length as follows:

> "Much more so when the functions of the State Government are usurped in a particular locality, the process of the Commonwealth and the lawful acts of its officers resisted, and unlawful arrests made at the dictation of a body of men who have assumed the functions of a government in that locality; and it is a state of war when a business plant has to be surrounded by the army of the State for weeks to protect it from unlawful violence at the hands of men formerly employed in it. Where a body of men have organized for a treasonable purpose, every step which any one of them takes in part execution of their common purpose is an overt act of treason in levying war. Every member of such associated government, whether it be an advisory committee, or by whatever name it is called, who has participated in such usurpation, who has joined in a common purpose of resistance to the law and a denial of the rights of other citizens, has committed treason against the State. While the definition of this offence is the designing or overturning of the Government of the State, such intention need not extend to every portion of its territory. It is sufficient if it be an overturning of it in a particular locality, and such intent may be inferred from the acts committed. If they be such that the authority of the State is overturned in a particular locality, and a usurped authority substituted in its place, the parties committing it must be presumed to have intended to do what they had actually done."

The effect of this charge must be to revive and stimulate the discussion of the questions involved in the Homestead troubles, and of the methods which should be adopted to prevent their recurrence. Undoubtedly, the doctrine laid down by the Chief Justice will surprise most people, so commonly is the word treason identified with the idea of plotting with foreign enemies of the State. Whether or not Judge Paxson's definition be finally accepted as the law of the land, it is a great service to have the underlying issues thus forced to ultimate decision.

TENNYSON.

TENNYSON made his first public appearance as a poet in 1827 in a volume of 228 pages, published jointly with his brother Charles. How much was Alfred's we do not know, as there is no formal indication, and the manner of the poems gives no sign. There is nothing in them of the later quality of either brother. For poems written from fifteen to eighteen they are not discreditable, but there is nothing in them to suggest a coming fame. Byron's 'Hours of Idleness' was much more prophetic. The reader is told in the preface that he will find many imitations. These are mainly of Byron, but they are very faint. Nothing was preserved by Tennyson from this volume, even when he made the follies of his youth the vices of his manhood "by an after-approbation." He went up to Cambridge chastened in spirit by the failure of his anonymous venture to make a ripple on the public mind, and glad, no doubt, that he had withheld his name. He did not withhold it from his next publication, his prize poem of 1829, "Timbuctoo." It is interesting that we have Arthur Hallam's poem on the same unpromising subject, and that Thackeray's first publication was a burlesque upon it. In 1830, while still an undergraduate, Tennyson published 'Poems, Chiefly Lyrical,' a volume of 154 pages, with very little on each separate page.

It was high time for a new poet to appear. Keats, Shelley, and Byron had gone over to the majority in swift succession. Southey, after having launched a whole fleet of epics, was discovering that prose was his vocation. Wordsworth had twenty years more to live, but little more to say. 'Poems, Chiefly Lyrical' had at least the merit of difference from all the recent verse. It was hailed by the *Westminster* with cordial praise; but Christopher North, then editor of *Blackwood*, was determined that the young poet should not be spoiled by finding himself called a new Elizabethan. One poem in the book he called "drivel," another "more dismal drivel," and a third "more dismal drivel even than that." Tennyson answered in a poem in which the refrains "musty Christopher" and "crusty Christopher" were prominent: he would forgive his blame, but not his praise. But North's praise was for the best and his blame was not without effect. Of the "Deserted House" he said, "Every word tells, and the short whole is most pathetic in its completeness—let us say perfection—like some old Scottish air sung by a maiden at her wheel or by a shepherd in the wilderness." By far the most interesting review of the little book, however, was by Arthur Hallam, whose poems would have been included in the volume with Tennyson's had not his father made demur. It hailed Tennyson as a splendid rebel against Wordsworth and his school, a successor of Hunt and Keats and Shelley, and especially of Keats—preëminently the poet of sensation. This shows how imperfectly the volume of 1830 foreshadowed the full-grown Tennyson, in whom the reflective element, which Hallam deprecated in Wordsworth, was more conspicuous than the sensuous; and, strange to say, Tennyson's great reflective poem is a lament for the young friend who praised him for his lack of that which is his own and Tennyson's best pledge of immortality.

But the volume of 1830 was for the most part an embodiment of Tennyson's delight in sensuous things and in metrical experiments. Poe's extravagant praise of Tennyson was probably based upon these last, which, in common with much of his own verse, confused the limits of poetry and music and subordinated sense to sound. Many, but not too many, of the poems in this volume failed to appear in subsequent collections. Some of them still hold their own among the poet's second best. The richness of the sensuous coloring, the passionate delight in finding beauteous words for images of beauteous things—a delight which is perhaps Tennyson's most characteristic trait—reached its acme in "Recollections of the Arabian Nights."

In 1833 Tennyson published a second volume, including nothing that was in the first, and marking an advance on that which was so striking that it won for him, as it deserved, the reversal of many judgments unfavorable to his talents. In the first volume there was not a touch of modern interest, except possibly in the piece called "A Character"; there was no human sympathy; the sensation and emotion did not inhere in any definite personality or carry with them any tale of love or sorrow. Least of all was there any touch of homely vigor. In the volume of 1833 there was a happy difference in these particulars, while there was less capriciousness of form and far less of tinsel glitter and mere prettiness in the detail. "The Lady of Shalott" was the first note preluding the Arthurian symphony that was yet to swell. The full scope of Tennyson's genius was not revealed in this volume, but it made clear that there was much more in him than exquisiteness of lyric form or daintiness of sensuous representation. Of these poems generally, as of the lotus-eaters' land to which one of them conducts our swooning fancy, it might well be said in Tennyson's own words:

> "There is sweet music here that softer falls
> Than petals from blown roses on the grass,
> Or night-dews on still waters between walls
> Of shadowy granite, in a gleaming pass;
> Music that gentlier on the spirit lies
> Than tired eyelids upon tired eyes;
> Music that brings sweet sleep down from the blissful skies."

But there was more than this. There was the splendid diction and the forcible dramatic impersonation of the "Dream of Fair Women." The revolt of Tennyson from Wordsworth's theory of poetic diction is nowhere more conspicuous than here, unless it be in later corrections of the same poem, one of which substitutes "the bright death" at Iphigeneia's throat for "the sharp knife." This was a very characteristic change.

From 1833 to 1842 Tennyson was a busy author, as was proved by the event; but in this interval no volume issued from his hand. In 1842 appeared an entirely new volume, 'English Idylls and Other Poems,' and a complete edition of his poems in two volumes. Of these the second was identical with the volume of new poems; the first was made up from the volumes of 1830 and 1833. All of the latter had been kept, but with many changes, both subtractions and additions, and about half the former. In the second volume we have very nearly the perfect Tennyson, all of his energy and beauty and nearly all the fulness of his range. Had we only this volume, Tennyson's rank as a poet would be hardly less exalted than it is in virtue of his life's complete performance. Something in every kind he had before essayed was here, and better done. Something was here of nearly everything he afterwards essayed. Here as an artist he touched the height of his attainment.

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Much was to come, but nothing better as poetic art, and nothing different, except "The Northern Farmer," the most homely, realistic, and dramatic of his poems, the dramas "Queen Mary," "Harold," and "Becket," and some others of a lighter cast, and—surely a very great exception, if it was really different from "The Two Voices"—'In Memoriam.' But to claim for Tennyson's volume of 1842 a manifestation so nearly perfect of his poetic genius is not by any means to be ungrateful for the additions that he made to that before his death. There is no part of the 'Idylls of the King' that is more beautiful than the "Morte d'Arthur," which daringly initiated the volume of 1842; daringly, because what better wine could follow after that? Yet better wine there was to follow. But the perfection of the "Morte d'Arthur" does not make the tender beauty of "Elaine," nor the witchery of "Vivien," nor the great nobility and pathos of "Guinevere," of less account; and for what we have in spiritual suggestion and embodiment of the profoundest sentiment of the poet's time in 'In Memoriam' there are many who would gladly give up all the rest that Tennyson achieved. Another very sensible and valuable addition to the sum of 1842 is in the songs that afterwards appeared; the group occurring in 'The Princess,' as interludes and in the body of the piece, touching the highest mark. The poems that have done most to make Tennyson widely popular—a people's poet he has hardly been even with these to show—are such idylls as "Dora" and "The Gardener's Daughter," poems with a story in them, and dealing mainly with the perplexities and sorrows and catastrophes that are never far removed from the most ordinary lives. Nothing of Tennyson's is more thoroughly his own than these idylls. In Wordsworth and in Crabbe there were attempts to deal with similar situations, but the manner was entirely different. If there was more of truth, there was less of charm. In Tennyson's idylls much may be sad, but all is beautiful. Allied with these in spirit, but lyrical in form, were the poems "Lady Clare," "The Lord of Burleigh," and "The Talking Oak," even more popular than the others, because they sang themselves into the common heart. In the same volume were three dramatic poems, two of them dramatic lyrics of great force and beauty, "St. Agnes" and "Sir Galahad." But "St. Simeon Stylites" is a poem made of sterner stuff. It may be doubted whether Browning could have created a St. Simeon with so little of himself in it as there is of Tennyson in Tennyson's Saint. The superficial humility and essential arrogance of the ascetic temper no one could express more perfectly.

Tennyson's volumes of 1830 and 1833 had contained nominal songs, but they did not sing, and they could not be sung. In the volume of 1842 appeared the first of many that sing, although unsung, but which have naturally invited the composer's skill, and so have had much wider currency than they might otherwise have had. But the cap-sheaf of beauty and of power in the new volume was the "Ulysses." When we said that there was better in the volume even than the "Morte d'Arthur," we had this in mind. When Wordsworth died in 1850, and the question of his successor came up, Sir Robert Peel was consulted, but he had never read anything of Tennyson. The "Ulysses" was urged on his attention, and he had no doubt that Tennyson would answer for the post. Thackeray's daughter, Mrs. Ritchie, tells the story, which is doubtful, but which ought to be true whether it is or not.

In the interval between his volume of 1842 and his laureateship, Tennyson had published two important works: in 1847 'The Princess,' and in 1850 'In Memoriam.' 'The Princess' was indeed "A Medley" as it was called—a medley of mediæval situation and modern thought, of pleasant humor and of serious purpose. There was much difference of opinion about it, as subsequently about 'Maud' and the second 'Locksley Hall.' But it was as a pamphlet against "woman's rights," which it was never meant to be, and not as a poem, among the lovers of good poetry, that it failed to satisfy. It did but make the "woman's rights" agitation an excuse for a semi-humorous, wholly earnest poem of ideal womanhood. As it went on, the serious purpose grew and had at length exclusive sway. It was one of many contributions from the poet to the nobilities and sanctities of wedded life. The true relationship of man and woman has never found more grand and beautiful expression than in the closing part. Strangely enough, the songs which serve as interludes between the different parts were absent from the first edition, but we have Tennyson's assurance, in a published letter, that they were not an afterthought, and that the child of the songs is the hero of the whole performance.

'In Memoriam' appeared anonymously in 1850, but the disguise was very shortly dropped. The poem throws little light on the development of Tennyson's genius, because it was not written after 'The Princess,' but, piece after piece, all the way along from Hallam's death in 1833. It is a journal of the poet's sorrow during the interval between that date and 1850. It becomes less individual, more universal, as the years go by. The poet's private sorrow opens out into a hundred aspects of the pain and mystery, the wonder and the joy, of human life. The progress of the poem is from doubt to faith. It closes to the sound of marriage-bells. Its earlier parts, relating to the death and burial of the poet's friend, were written shortly after his death. They are distinctly inferior to the later parts that take a broader sweep. These reveal him as profoundly agitated by the deepest scientific and religious questions of his time, but holding fast his faith in God and man. The essentially poetical character of the concepts of modern science has not been so clearly conceived by any other poet, and he expressed them in the language of poetry without violation of their truth. 'In Memoriam' is a factor that must be reckoned with in the religious life of the Victorian times. It has brought strength and peace to thousands. It has winged the thought of many earnest preachers to its mark.

As the official poet of the realm, Tennyson's first poem was upon the death of Wellington. Hardly could it have been better if it had not been official. His laureate work was seldom of his best, or even moderately good. Only certain dedications to the Queen are of his proper height. 'Maud' was published in 1855, and Tennyson's own dissatisfaction with it, proved by his remorseless revision, has been widely shared. The garden song in it was its best justification. It was always difficult for Tennyson to depict a violent passion otherwise than as hysterical. In 1859 appeared the 'Idylls of the King'—"Enid," "Vivien," "Elaine," and "Guinevere." The number was afterwards increased, but the additions are not generally equal to the original set. "The Passing of Arthur" is certainly at the poet's best, but that is an expansion of the "Morte d'Arthur," and the wise reader will prefer the shorter poem in its original setting. No afterthought can make an epic poem, and it is a matter for regret that Tennyson chose at length to offer the Idylls as an Arthurian Epic. They have not that cohesion and that cumulative force which is rightfully expected of an epic. As an interpretation of the spirit of the Arthurian legend as we find it in Sir Thomas Malory, they cannot be pronounced a great success. Mr. Arnold's "Tristram and Iseult" is nearer to the mark. But they abound in noble passages, and the "Guinevere" rises at length to a height of tragic feeling that has seldom been surpassed.

We can do no more than mention in their order the principal publications of Tennyson after the 'Idylls of the King.' 'Enoch Arden' appeared in 1864, the 'Holy Grail' in 1869, 'Songs of the Wrens' in 1870, 'Gareth and Lynette' in 1872, the dramas "Queen Mary" and "Harold" in 1875 and 1876, and "Becket" in 1884, of which the first in time was first in power; the 'Lover's Tale' in 1879, and about the same time 'Ballads and Poems'; in 1881 and 1882 three minor dramas, "The Cup," "The Falcon," and "The Promise of May"; in 1886 'Locksley Hall Sixty Years After'; in 1889 'Demeter, and Other Poems'; in 1892 "The Foresters." With the poems naming the successive books there were frequently poems of greater value than the more ambitious in whose train they followed, "Lucretius" and "Tithonus" for example. "Queen Mary" and "Becket" were put upon the stage, as also the three minor dramas, but without much success. Tennyson's lack of humor was conspicuous in his clowns in "Becket." Less "excellent fooling" it would be hard to find. "Locksley Hall Sixty Years After" brought about his ears a clashing storm of rival sympathies. Mr. Gladstone met its pessimistic plaint with a clear showing of the gains of sixty years. But Tennyson's poem was not unworthy of his fame. It contains a vision of the future as encouraging as anything in the earlier "Locksley Hall" and in perfect keeping with the even tenor of his life, not "noises of a current narrowing," but "the music of a deep."

In Tennyson the poet was exhaustive of the man to a remarkable degree. He existed for the general public only as a poet. He stood at the opposite extreme from Byron's engrossing personality. The man behind the poet was a mystery—an inviolable shade which vulgar curiosity essayed to grasp in vain. His aloofness was of a kind that makes Emerson seem in comparison the most sociable of men. In his youth he had great capacity for friendship within narrow bounds. At Cambridge he was one of Whewell's men, and among these he found his early friends—Arthur Hallam chief; Fitzgerald, the translator of Omar Khayyám, the "Old Fitz" of one of the most beautiful poems of his later life; Milnes, Trench, Maurice, Spedding, and "the lost light of those dawn-golden times," the Rev. W. H. Brookfield, to whom, with his wife, Thackeray wrote those delightful letters that were published in 1887. With Thackeray and Carlyle he had friendliest relations further on, and with Gladstone all along from the time when Hallam was their common friend. He was dining with Thackeray when his little girl asked him why he didn't write books like 'Nicholas Nickleby.' Oxford gave him the degree of D.C.L. in 1865, and his own Cambridge Trinity made haste to do the same. In 1869 he was made an honorary fellow of Trinity, and his bust was placed in

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the College library. In December, 1883, he was made Baron Tennyson of Aldworth, Sussex, and Freshwater, Isle of Wight.

There was never a more purely literary life, and never a literary life confined more closely to a single line of work. Many poets have written a good deal of prose, at least with their left hand. Tennyson confined himself to poetry with a tenacity and exclusiveness strangely matched by the opposing genius of his time. He was devoted to ideal excellence. He was not easily satisfied with his own performance, but ever returned upon it with a critic's eye and a courageous hand. No other poet has made so many changes in his published works. By this sign he was preëminently the artist among poets. The spontaneous conception was wrought out with infinite patience. Every cadence, every word was challenged and assayed. The result was a unique external beauty and perfection, while of high imagination and delightful fancy, soaring thoughts and earnest purpose, there was never any lack in the full tide of his career. The penalty of Tennyson's seclusion was at length a mind distrustful of all present tendencies of thought and action. When Gladstone, ever in the thickest of the fight, grew from a straight-laced Tory into a hopeful Liberal, his friend changed from a hopeful Liberal into the representative aristocrat and Tory of his time. There was nothing in his work corresponding to the blows which Whittier and Lowell struck for freedom in America. He was lotus-eating all the time that Ebenezer Elliott was making Corn Law rhymes. But he never lent his art to any baseness or impurity. He was ever the poet of all those renunciations and fidelities which are the safeguards of domestic peace and love, of that obedience to law which is essential to political progress, of the joy of widening knowledge and of deepening faith. Yet his most characteristic service was not in virtue of these things. It was in virtue of his lifelong passion of admiration for all beautiful things, and his creation of a body of verse which, marvellous in its range of matter and of form, and full of music, warmth, and color, has given to us many hours of stainless joy.

THE PARIS EXHIBITION OF EARLY AMERICAN MAPS.

PARIS, September 13, 1892.

WHEN the Duke de Mandas was appointed ambassador of Spain to Paris, one of his first cares, after he had taken possession of his post, was to select a committee in furtherance of the project originated by him of an exhibition to celebrate the fourth centennial of the discovery of America. Administrators of the great public institutions—the Foreign Office, Navy Department, War Office, National Archives and Library—able to assist the project, were called upon to search zealously for desirable material. The exhibition contemplated by the Duke was to be held at Madrid. The fact that it was to be outside of France caused difficulties. A special law would have to be passed to authorize the loan of such manuscripts, documents, or objects, the property of public institutions, if these objects were to be taken out of France. No later than 1889, at the Universal Exposition, the exhibits contributed by the Government could not have left their places of keeping without such a law. So, with this obstacle in view, which did not seem easy to overcome, preparations progressed without much spirit, and perhaps the project would have had to be abandoned had it not been taken up in another form. M. Gabriel Marcel, librarian of the geographical department at the National Library, suggested that the centennial might be celebrated in Paris, and that a proper search among the riches of the French archives would produce an exhibition of maps pertaining to the discovery of America quite equal to the occasion. This idea was received with enthusiasm. It did more than gratify national pride; it drew a thorn out of the side of the Committee. The Ambassador of Spain could be told that if France declined the loan of the pieces needed for the projected exposition at Madrid, it was because there was to be a like exposition in Paris—a better answer than to keep on objecting that there were no precedents for making such loans abroad. It may be added that the excuse was accepted in its true spirit. On the opening of the exposition at the National Library, July 13, the Ambassador of Spain was not present, nor has he visited it at all.

This very interesting exhibition cannot be said to have been opened at a favorable time of year. By mid-July, Paris is well-nigh emptied. In particular that portion of the public which makes it a point to be absent when the "fête nationale" comes round, was missing. It was fully two months later than first intended, for it was announced to be ready by May; but no one who followed the preliminaries can wonder at the delay. The colossal researches in dusty portfolios; the endless sorting to reach a final choice; and, above all, the extensive correspondence between the different institutions concerned in order to settle matters, sufficiently account for the want of punctuality. As may be supposed, the Navy Department's share in the exhibition far exceeds all others. Three private collections also have contributed to the success of the exhibition, viz., those belonging to Prof. Hamy of the Institute, President of the Committee; to M. H. Harrisse, and M. H. Duhamel. Two hundred and eighty-nine numbers make up the catalogue, or as many headings, we should say more rightly; for often under one heading a whole series, a whole collection, figures by itself. The order of the exhibits in the catalogue freely disregards chronology, and the same thing is true of the disposition of the maps and atlases on the walls and tables of the exhibition rooms. As in a collection of pictures, the maps are arranged so as to produce as harmonious an effect as possible. As a sign of *ralliement* for the amateur visitor, who might feel at first a little perplexed by the display of the most ancient documents, dates or approximate epochs of the maps have been affixed to the titles; but what better guidance could he desire than that of the amiable librarian who so readily offers himself as cicerone in doing the honors, scattering anecdotes and bits of information not included in the programme?

It is instructive to begin with a glance at a rare piece belonging to the National Library (No. 43 of the catalogue). This is a portolano representing Europe, part of Asia and Africa, and certain fabulous lands. It is almost filled with allegorical figures. In the north seas we see a boat chasing a whale. The legend is: "Mecia de Viladestes me fecit in anno 1413." This portolano is in striking contrast with the maps contemporary with the discovery of America, viz., (1) the map of Juan de la Cosa, pilot of Columbus (1500), now in Madrid; (2) the map of Alberto Cantino (end of 1501) in Ferrara; (3) an anonymous Portuguese map (1502), belonging to Prof. Hamy; (4) the map of Nicholas Canerio (end of 1502), belonging to the Navy Department; (5) a portolano dated 1504 at Munich. Of these five maps only two originals figure at the exhibition—those loaned by Prof. Hamy and the Navy Department. Facsimiles represent the remaining three. With regard to the map of Juan de la Cosa, now in the Navy Department at Madrid, and once the property of Baron Walkenaer, as well known to geographers as to the admirers of Mme. de Sévigné, M. Marcel is doubtful of its authenticity. His reasons are that it has too many Spanish words misspelt to be the work of an educated Spaniard; then, the islands of the West Indies are too well represented, and differ too much from what is seen on other maps of the same period.

The map of Nicholas Canerio (No. 9) was not made in Italy. Canerio came from Genoa, but at that time a number of Italian scientists were employed in Seville and in Lisbon. The influence of both these centres is so apparent on Canerio's map that it goes by the name of the Hispano-Portuguese portolano. The West Indies are very correctly described on it; so are the discoveries of Vespucius and of Columbus, which not only are rich in nomenclature, but are joined together by a straight line of coasts—which juncture may be regarded as an ingenious piece of initiative on the part of a wise cartographer. These details go far to prove that he must have had knowledge of the original map of which Alberto Cantino sent a copy to the Duke of Este; also, that he must have been guided by the revelations of some clandestine explorer. No official voyage took place in 1502, but we can admit as plausible that a handful of navigators, incited by Columbus's example and encouraged by the privileges granted him and the benefits they hoped to derive, undertook to do as much as the official explorer of Spain. A curious feature of Cantino's map is the representation on it of Mexico and the land of Florida under the Spanish flag.

The Portuguese portolano exhibited by Prof. Hamy (No. 34) was bought by him in England of a navigator named King. On it, as on the preceding map, the West Indies are very correctly outlined. So are the coasts reconnoitred by Columbus and Ojeda, and those seen by Vespucius, but *separated*. This map is particularly interesting by reason of the position given to the Portuguese discoveries, so as to place them within the line of demarcation fixed by Pope Alexander VI. This line is positively indicated on the Cantino map in blue, and divides it in two. Indeed, it may be remarked generally of Portuguese maps of that time that Corterealis, Labrador, and Greenland are always much too close to Europe—no involuntary error, but a ruse to bring the regions explored by Portugal within the zone reserved to that country in accordance with the limits prescribed by Alexander VI. In short, any map that bends the coasts of North America eastward in a deceptive circle, may be looked upon as inspired by a Portuguese document.

All these early maps relative to the discovery of the New World are manuscripts. The first engraved map representing America appeared in the edition of Ptolemy published by Ruysch in 1508. This does not differ greatly from its forerunners. Then comes the map of Ptolemy dated 1513, and a wooden globe of the same period called the green globe (No. 23), which has been described at length by M. Marcel in the *Bulletin de Géographie Historique et Descriptive*—and rightly, for it is one of the most precious pieces in the Department of

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Cartography. On this globe the Panama Canal would seem to exist. The eastern coasts of America, from Carolina to the mouth of the La Plata, are indicated, but in a very rudimentary way; and this is especially true of the Gulf of Mexico. The chief interest of the globe consists in the fact that the name of America is inscribed on it four times. This globe was brought from Italy by Count Riant, and is very likely the work of Schöner.

The progress of the history of the discovery of America may be followed on three other globes of almost equal interest. (1) *Le globe doré* (No. 42), dated 1527, written wholly in Latin and entitled "Nova et integra universi orbs [*sic*] descriptio," is curious as showing America and Asia as one continent, still in accordance with the ideas of Columbus on his first landing. In Peru there are no signs of the expedition of Pizarro, while the itinerary of Magellan is very closely indicated. Doubtless the geographer who made this globe was inspired by Verrazzano's expedition in 1525. (2) *Le globe de bois* (No. 33 *bis*), of uncouth workmanship, was also brought from Italy by Count Riant; its date, between 1532 and 1535, may be conjectured from the fact that in Peru is found the name of St. Michael, the town founded by Pizarro to celebrate his victory over the natives in 1531. (3) *Le globe de cuivre* (No. 46), dating from the later part of the sixteenth century, comes from the library of the Abbé Lémy, who died Vicar-General of Paris. This globe is of admirable workmanship, the engraving being due to an inhabitant of Rouen, as the title bears witness: "Nova et integra universi orbis descriptio, Rhotomagi." America and Asia are two distinct continents on this globe. A Latin inscription placed on the straits which later were to bear the name of Bering, explains why the author made that division, and how he had been guided in his work by more recent and more reliable documents. The expedition of Frobisher to the polar seas is registered on this globe.

Numerous are the maps, dating from the sixteenth century, of Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, and French origin, wherewith to follow the study of that epoch. We will mention but three of these as curiosities. A Portuguese portolano (No. 1 of the catalogue), signed Gasp. Viegas, is dated 1534, the year in which Jacques Cartier sailed for the first time to New France. This map gives Newfoundland and the coast of Brazil down to the mouth of the La Plata. A planisphere of 1550 (No. 19) indicates the coast of America from Labrador southward beyond the Amazon River. It is the work of D. Guttierez, the younger, the same who, as cosmographer-major of Spain, was deprived of his title and imprisoned because he had infringed the jealous law by which his Government forbade officials to draw or sell maps, globes, or nautical instruments to private parties. A French portolano by Guillaume Le Testu (No. 26) is a fine map of equatorial projection, dated 1556, whose beauty of execution cannot be described. Artistic design is characteristic of the French school of hydrography. In the works of that galaxy, the Duponts of Dieppe, J. Guérard, G. Levasseur, P. Desceliers, Nicholas Desliens, P. Devaulx of Havre, the eye is forcibly struck by the artistic quality, united with scientific precision, which seems to have found its last word in an atlas by that same Guillaume Le Testu (No. 181) loaned by the War Office. Seventy maps, many of them bearing the arms of Admiral de Coligny, to whom the atlas was dedicated, make of this scientific work a marvel of art. It is dated April 5, 1555.

If we pass to the next century, there is a loan from the Navy Department (No. 131), a very large map of North and South America, extending from Cayenne to Hudson's Bay, worthy to be kept under glass. The title is decorated with allegorical designs painted in gouache by a hand that doubtless painted fans for queens. It is anonymous and without date; however, it is regarded as anterior to 1682, because the Mississippi River (then the Colbert River) stops at its junction with the Ohio. The first discoveries on that river by the Cavelier de La Salle are marked. So, very distinctly, are those of Père Marquette and of Joliet. This map is specially valuable to the French inasmuch as the great Western lakes bear the names first given them. Thus, Lake Superior is called: *Lac de Tracy, dit de Condé;* Lake "Michiganong" has as sub-title *Grand Lac des Illinois, dit Dauphin;* Lake Huron, *dit d'Orléans;* Lake Erie, *dit de Conty*; and Lake Ontario figures as *Lac de Frontenac*, the name of the then Governor of New France.

The exhibition is rich in documents pertaining to the United States; and in presence of the display of such maps due to French explorers or travellers, one feels willing to admit that if Spain can claim the chief rôle in the discovery of America, few countries in subsequent years did more than France in the progressive reconnoitring of that vast continent. The first map on which Chicago is mentioned is by a Frenchman, Jean-Baptiste Louis Franquelin, who calls Chicago *Fort Checagou.* This map (No. 161, dated 1688) is very extensive; it gives the lands of Canada, Louisiana, Florida, Virginia, New Sweden, New York, New England, Acadia, Newfoundland. No. 284 begins a long series of maps on the course of the Mississippi, dating from 1699 through the first quarter of the eighteenth century. Subsequently, Nos. 47 and 92 show us maps of the course of the Mississippi that served the expedition of Gen. Callot—large, important maps, including views of Pittsburg, Natchez, Baton-Rouge in 1796, also sketches of the rapids on the Ohio and portraits of Indians by the pencil of an eighteenth-century artist. Of a still later epoch is a splendid map (No. 39) of the mouth of the Mississippi in 1804, which was brought to France by M. Laussat, colonial prefect of Louisiana. Then, at epochs more or less distant from us, there are the plans of Philadelphia, of Albany, of Boston, in 1697 (No. 35), by J. B. L. Franquelin, who calls the capital of Massachusetts *Baston;* of New Orleans in 1720 (No. 85), by M. de Beauvilliers, showing just three cabins; and of the same city twenty years later, already an American city laid out in squares. But the first map of New York (No. 277) is not by a Frenchman: "Manatus, drawn on the spot by Joan Vingboous in 1639, for the Dutch East India Company," reads the heading. In a corner are inscribed the names of the Battery and Fort Amsterdam, of the three windmills, and of the forty-five first Dutch settlers who occupied the forty-five houses which were the nucleus of the future New York. It would give me pleasure to jot down these names had not M. Harrisse, the owner of the document, reserved this information for a work in preparation.

In the maps relating to the French colonies the colonial history of that country is found complete. It is enough to enumerate the collections pertaining to San Domingo, Guiana, Cayenne, especially this last colony, from the morrow of its settlement to the second half of the eighteenth century. These maps are often so comprehensive that the names of planters and the numbers of their negroes, the nomenclature of agriculture, the population of the Indian tribes—warriors, women, and children—are registered. Certainly not the least curious of these is the map of Cayenne (No. 105), decorated with the view of the island in 1667 designed by Israel Silvestre, and (to prove that the process of colonization has always been the same) a flowery advertisement, vaunting the delicious climate and fertility of Cayenne, and offering besides to emigrants a free passage and provisions until able to repay the authors of that pretty *réclame.* About Canada there is still more: the aspect of the old settlements revives under our eyes. And while speaking of Canada, I must record another of M. Harrisse's treasures (No. 188), a handsome map on parchment, unpublished and autographic, dated 1608. Champlain's own hand has traced on that parchment the coasts, ports, isles, and seas of New France.

The next number to this (No. 188 *bis*) is the jewel of the exhibition. It is a MS. volume dated 1502 and emblazoned on the first page with the arms of Christopher Columbus. In this volume have been transcribed by two notaries copies of all the privileges, all the nominations, all the cessions and other acts passed in behalf of Columbus by the Catholic kings. Papers are perishable, he bethought him, and a triple copy of that cartularium was made. One is lost, one is in Genoa, and this one, property of the archives of the Foreign Office in France, is the most complete. We are pleased to think that Columbus loved to refer to these pages in the hour of his adversity, and with that thought we look upon this book as more than an historical document—as a very relic of the great navigator himself.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

LAMARTINE AND MADAME CHARLES.

PARIS, September 28, 1892.

ALL great poets have had an inspirer—Dante, Tasso, Shakspere, Racine. Lamartine had Elvire; it was in memory of Elvire that he wrote his finest Meditation, "The Lake." But did Elvire really exist, or was she merely a creature of the imagination? And if she existed, had she any of the characters of Beatrice, of Laura? Was there but one Elvire, or were there many Elvires? This question has recently been treated with new details and inedited documents by M. Anatole France, the literary critic of the *Temps*, a delicate writer himself, who has written, besides a number of critical articles, several novels which are not at all in the realistic vein of the day. M. France has, if I may say so, a Lamartinian soul—that is to say, he has a touch of grace and gravity and elevation which have become rather rare, and his study on Elvire shows that he, at least, has not forgotten the author of the "Poetic Meditations," who, with Musset and Victor Hugo, formed the great poetical trinity of our time.

M. Anatole France found in the rich cabinet of autographs of M. Étienne Charavay a certain number of letters by Mme. Charles, wife of a scientist famous in his time. He tells us, what we knew already, that Mme. Charles was Lamartine's Elvire, and he gives us many interesting details concerning the enthusiastic young woman who inspired Lamartine with an eloquent passion. Lamartine gives a part of the story of Mme. Charles in his "Raphael." He relates that Julie, a Creole brought to France from San Domingo at the age of six years, an orphan, was educated at the National School of Saint Denis, where she was visited by an old

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man who, when she reached the age of seventeen and was on the point of entering the world, having no relations or friends, offered her his home, and proposed to her, "in the eyes of the world and only for the world, the name, the hand, the attachment of an old man, who, under the name of a husband, would only be her father." M. France gives no more details; he could not even ascertain where she was born. She was Mlle. de Desherettes. She still had her father, and was living with him at Lagrange, near Tours, when she married. Lamartine killed the father in his novel, and perhaps he did well, as he seems to have been an old drunkard, caring only for horses and guns. Her first suitor was M. Charles, who was fifty-two years of age, a man of most agreeable manners, who had already attained a great reputation. He had studied science, especially electricity, and given lectures before Franklin and Volta. He made curious experiments on thunder-storms, and substituted for the first balloons invented by Montgolfier, which were filled merely with hot air, balloons full of hydrogen. He made several ascensions in these balloons, and his name had attained an immense popularity. You will find it even on many old plates sold in the villages, representing coarsely the first ascensions of balloons. Louis XVI. was much interested in balloons and gave Charles a pension out of his private purse.

His marriage with Julie de Desherettes was celebrated at the beginning of August, 1804. In a letter written to his friend Morel de Vindé, on July 23, 1804, Charles announces his return to Paris: "Surely Julie is worth all the trouble which possession of her has cost me; there is hardly a novel which contains more curious and interesting incidents and characters than have been found in this succession of family pictures. . . . Western [Squire Western of 'Tom Jones'] is nothing compared to my father-in-law. Julie's uncle is an excellent man, who reminds one of Allworthy. Without him, his extreme kindness and his obliging care, the poor child would have died long ago." Julie remained all her life an invalid, and, as M. Anatole France says, "she did well for her glory to live at a time when consumption was charming in a woman." Julie was very fortunate in passing from the hands of a brutal and irrational father into those of the most considerate of men.

Morel de Vindé was a writer. In 1789 he was a counsellor in the Parlement of Paris. He had espoused the principles of the Revolution, and was a constitutional monarchist. He retired to the country during the Terror, and succeeded in being forgotten. "What have you been doing?" some one inquired of Sieyès after the Terror. "I have lived." Morel de Vindé lived also. He bought a fine house after the Revolution at the Celle Saint-Cloud. He and his wife saw much of M. and Mme. Charles. This lady seems to have been one of the patronizing kind who are never tired of promoting the interests of their friends. She forced, so to speak, Morel de Vindé into the Institute; he was appointed, partly by her efforts, to the Section of Agriculture in the Academy of the Moral and Political Sciences, which has always been a sort of *caput mortuum* of the Institute. Charles about that time became ill; he suffered much from the stone, but with philosophy and courage. He had now an apartment in the buildings of the Institute, where he and his wife held a salon and received very good company. Their most intimate friend was Mounier, whom the Emperor Napoleon had found an *auditeur* at the Council of State, and had made during the Prussian campaign an *intendant* in the Duchy of Weimar, afterwards an administrator in Silesia. In 1808 Mounier was attached to his Cabinet as translator from foreign newspapers. He followed Napoleon in his campaigns, was made a baron, and received many favors—among the rest a great domain in Pomerania. Mounier was quickly reconciled to the Bourbons, and remained intendant of the royal palaces. Mme. Charles was a constant visitor at the hôtel in the Place Vendôme where the Mouniers lived.

She had always been delicate, but became quite ill in 1816, and the doctors ordered her to go to Aix. The journey was a long one at that time, and her husband could not accompany her. If she did not find health at Aix, says M. France, she found immortality, for there she met with Lamartine, a young man of twenty-six, very handsome and eloquent, full of imagination and of genius. Lamartine had palpitations of the heart, or thought he had. Mme. Charles's beauty made at once a great impression on him. He had always lived the life of a country gentleman, and had a sort of innocence; he was prepared for love, for a great passion. He wrote to his friend Virieu some time before he saw Mme. Charles: "I feel my heart as full of sad and delicious sentiments as during the first fever of my youth. I don't know what vague and sublime and infinite thoughts pass through my head every moment. . . . If, for my misfortune, I should find one of those women whom I once saw in my dreams, I would love her as much as man ever loved." This woman had now come, a vague apparition, with her poetic air, and, let us also say, with intelligence and heart enough to captivate a man—with something more than physical charms; a complete woman, but, alas! one who could not be much more to him than a dream, for her days were already numbered. Shall we examine with a critical eye into the real nature of the relations between Mme. Charles and Lamartine? I confess that I prefer not to do so, and I find it rather indiscreet in M. France, since the mystery has never been resolved, to try so hard to discover the exact significance of such words as "délices sublimes," "extases sublimes," which he encounters in "Le Lac" as it was printed, and in the manuscript of it kept by the niece of M. de Lamartine. The poet's language is not precise; do not let us be too precise ourselves.

Are the letters of Julie to Lamartine still in existence, or have they been burned? The question is discussed at length by M. France, but somewhat uselessly. Such letters, if they still exist, are not likely, if we understand Mme. Charles aright, to let us know very exactly what M. France wishes to know. I imagine that they are full of the most passionate affection, of the most enthusiastic admiration and interest; but I can hardly imagine that they could give us the key of the mystery. And, after all, why should we care to lift the veil? Why should we not be content with reading the beautiful poems inspired by Mme. Charles—"Le Lac," "L'Immortalité," "Le Temple," "Le Crucifix"? Whoever inspired such verses received more from the man who wrote them than anything she could give him. The letters of Mme. Charles make the impression of a very nervous, impressionable, excitable person, but her language is always what we call *châtié*, or very correct.

On her return to Paris, Mme. Charles recommended Lamartine to Baron Mounier. When the great poet came to Paris, she presented him to all her friends, and among others to M. Reyneval, as Lamartine was anxious to enter on a diplomatic career. He returned, after a short stay in Paris, to Moulins, and then to Mâcon. Mme. Charles grew worse; she spent the summer of 1817 in the woods of Viroflay, near Versailles. We have a few of the letters which she wrote from that charming retreat, then very deserted, to her friend Mounier; they are full of the expressions of an almost morbid friendship. She felt herself going. "Life is long, very long," she said. It is long for those who suffer. She spent two or three hours a day in her garden, all alone, thinking surely of young Lamartine, of her poet, of the man who had crossed her life a moment and left behind him a luminous trace. Her last letter to Mounier was written on the 15th of September, 1817. Lamartine began "The Lake" the day before; he knew that she was lost, and wrote as if she were already dead. He finished his celebrated ode on the 23d of September. Julie died only at the end of December. M. de Virieu took the crucifix which had been placed on her death-bed and sent it to Lamartine. When he received the fatal news, Lamartine wandered three days and three nights in the woods; then he went to work again, and worked at a tragedy of Saul.

Charles survived his wife by five months, and was buried on the 9th of April in the Cemetery of Père Lachaise. His tomb is there still; as for Julie, she was buried in the cemetery of Saint John, near the Hôtel de Ville—a cemetery which no longer exists, as the Rue de Rivoli was built through it. Her mortal remains are lost, but her name will live as long as the name of Lamartine.

Correspondence.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your discriminating editorial on the University of Chicago contains some statements which unfortunately are based on a misunderstanding of the purposes of this institution, and I beg the courtesy of space to make some explanations.

(1.) In speaking of the "group system," it is stated that "to obtain the degree of A. B. the student must devote . . . at least one-third of his junior and senior years to mathematics, languages, and the political and social sciences." This means, however, that he must take one-third of his work in the departments of Philosophy, Political Economy, Political Science, History, Social Science, Semitic Languages, Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Romance Languages, German, English, Biblical Literature, and Mathematics; while he may take two-thirds of his work in the remaining departments of Astronomy, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Geology. In short, it is no practical limitation to free choice.

(2.) Nor is it correct to say that "each student is held to attend fifteen hours of class-room work per week"; for, at the discretion of the instructor, some of the fifteen hours credited to the student may not be class-room work.

(3.) The reason for the concentration upon a few subjects at one time is admirably stated in your words: "This is an interesting reaction against the scattering system now in vogue. In many of our colleges the time of the student is frittered away in one-hour and two-hour courses, and his attention distracted

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by the pursuit of half-a-dozen different subjects at once." But you think the reaction has been carried too far when students are "crammed" with eight or ten hours a week of some subject. In truth, this arrangement is not so novel as it seems, for in any institution providing many electives this is even now adopted. A student at Harvard, for example, can take nine hours per week (or three full courses) throughout the year in Political Economy. Here, the student who takes two of our "minors," or a major, is doing essentially the same thing. Moreover, any major of six weeks is followed by a second examination twelve weeks later, with exercises once a week throughout this period. So that intensity of impression may go with duration of impression, as urged by you.

(4.) The plan of work is also misunderstood in all you have said in the paragraph which urges the impossibility of expecting fifteen hours a week from university students of work which is really not different from that in the German "seminaria." The mistake is in thinking this work is all to be done in the class-room and not in the library. And it is hardly credible that men of scholarship will have seminaries which are like "sophomore debating societies" in this University any more than in the institutions which they have just left.

(5.) A complete misunderstanding also exists in that part of your editorial in which you explain that a student is not permitted "to determine for himself on what lines he will do his chief work, *i. e.*, that he should make his own major." Nothing whatever in the Calendar, or in the University system as known to me, prevents a student from taking, at his pleasure, any subject as a major when studying for his degree. The mistake may have arisen from not knowing that the terms "major" and "minor" are used (much as are "full-course" and "half-course" at Harvard) merely as the amount of credit to be counted by a student towards the total work demanded for a degree. These terms do not signify that the kind of work done in a "minor" is less important than that done in a "major."

(6.) Nor do we "crudely measure the student's work by hours of attendance in the class-room." Although, by way of illustration, my own Seminary in Political Economy is announced as a credit of four hours a week, it is quite within my discretion to give to a student whose work deserves it a credit of eight hours a week.

It is natural that misunderstanding should arise from the introduction of new terms; and for this reason I venture to ask you to allow me to make the above explanations. The sure test of the standards set up by the University of Chicago is to be found in its administration of the requirements for admission. Out of the numerous applicants only 100 were admitted to the freshman class, and of the more numerous applications of special students only sixty were admitted, while the graduate students number more than those of any other group, or, on the day of opening, October 1, about 130. Those admitted to advanced standing from other institutions numbered 85. These figures, however, do not indicate all that may yet be expected in the next few days.

Yours truly, J. Laurence Laughlin.

University of Chicago,
Chicago, October 1, 1892.

[Prof. Laughlin has quite missed the point of some of our remarks. We did not criticise the Chicago requirements for the bachelor's degree as a "practical limitation [of] free choice"; we praised them because every course open to the student, including that which leads to the B.S., contains all the essential elements of a liberal education. Our only criticism touched the differentiation of the baccalaureate degrees.

We criticised the five and ten-hour courses in the "academic colleges," not because fifteen hours a week is too much class-room work for freshmen and sophomores, but because these students, in our opinion, are not mature enough to concentrate their energies, with permanent advantage, upon only two subjects at a time. Prof. Laughlin's comparison of a ten-hour course in a single *subject* at Chicago with a combination of three three-hour courses in a single *department* at Harvard is not quite fair. Political economy, for example, includes a great variety of subjects, and it is hardly likely that at Harvard any three courses in political economy could be taken simultaneously that would not differ widely in matter and treatment. If the contrary is the case, we make bold to disapprove *pro tanto* of Harvard.

Touching the question of "duration of impression" left by a ten-hour course despatched in six weeks, it is, again, not quite fair of Prof. Laughlin to cite the requirement of a second examination twelve weeks later, and refrain from citing the provision which immediately follows that requirement, viz.: "But the student whose term grade has been sufficiently high . . . may, if he desire, substitute for the second examination new material in the same department of study equal in amount to one-quarter of that included in the work of the term." That is, the students who have "crammed" most successfully for six weeks, and who distrust the duration of the impression, may avoid the test upon which Prof. Laughlin insists by more cramming.

To the ten-hour courses in the higher years we took exception on other grounds. We said that it was a mistake to carry into the "university" years the system of measuring performance by hours of class-room attendance. This, Prof. Laughlin says, is not done. The regulations, indeed, are identical for under-classmen, upper-classmen, and graduates; they say that a student must elect two majors and two minors in each quarter, or, in other words, courses representing twelve to fifteen hours a week; but these, we learn, are merely "credit" hours. The student may attend the class-room but four hours and receive a credit of eight hours. This is interesting news; but it does not affect our contention that this method of measurement, when applied to university work, and particularly to that of the graduate students, is a crude method. The candidates for the master's degree, instead of designating from quarter to quarter what "credits" they propose to pursue, ought to indicate in what subjects they propose to achieve mastery; and the only question should be, not one of hours or credits, but of actual achievement.

We said, again, that attendance on lectures and "seminaria" for twelve or fifteen hours a week was too much to ask of an advanced student. We are glad to see that Prof. Laughlin agrees with us, and proposes to reduce the hours by the credit system. We pointed out that a seminarium holding sessions for eight or ten hours a week was an absurdity. We said that *if* the students were encouraged or permitted to "discuss" through anything like that number of hours, the seminarium would degenerate into a sophomoric debating club. We did not say that the Chicago professors would be likely to tolerate such a result: we expressly indicated our belief that they would not. We predicted that they would do most of the talking themselves, and that these courses would become lecture-courses. As such we held that they were still too long.

We are glad, we repeat, that Prof. Laughlin not only agrees with us, but has discovered a remedy for these evils. The credit system, liberally employed, will undoubtedly correct them; and if this system shall become general at Chicago, as we hope it will, our objections to the long courses will have received from the University itself the most flattering of endorsements. But something should be said about it in the Calendar. Other colleges that employ the credit system are in the habit of indicating it. If a two-hour course is to count for four, they say so in print. The Chicago Calendar says nothing of the sort, and Prof. Laughlin cannot blame us for reckoning by the Calendar. —Ed. Nation.]

"VERY PLEASED."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "M. C. L.," dating from your city, remarks, with strict fidelity to facts, in to-day's issue of *Notes and Queries*, that the collocation which heads this letter "seems to be a common English locution; but it is not used here, except by those who take it from English people."

With regard to *very satisfied* and *very pleased*, the late Mr. George P. Marsh, reporting his experience in the last generation, says that "we not unfrequently hear such expressions," and that "the inclination, in this country, is to enlarge" the category to which they belong. If, however, Mr. Marsh had explored more diligently, he would have merely recorded such a discriminating judgment as that of "M. C. L." The "inclination" which he asserts is not indicated by the literature of America a whit more than by the literature of England, if, indeed, as much. See, for the words quoted, *Lectures on the English Language* (1860), p. 658.

Here in Great Britain, almost as a rule, whoever is revolted by any given form of speech is pretty sure to assume, or else to be easily persuaded, that the discredit of originating it attaches to our countrymen. Not at all unexpectedly, then, they have been saddled with the paternity of *very pleased*.

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Informed that this phrase should be held in contempt, Professor F. Maximilian Müller, conciliatively Anglicizing, has classed it among linguistic depravations for which we are responsible. In the third edition of his *Lectures on the Science of Language*, p. 29, he enounces, with the confidence of a person retailing a scientific axiom: "In fact, 'very pleased' and 'very delighted' are Americanisms which may be heard even in this country." But this was destined to emendation; and, according to the fourth edition of the same *Lectures*, p. 40, *very pleased* and *very delighted* are simply "expressions which may be heard in many drawing-rooms." What farther discoveries Professor Müller may have made respecting the expressions, it must be left to others to ascertain.

We read, again, in a highly instructive recent work:

"The adverb *very* . . . is the singular and undivided property of the Adjective, e. g., 'very tall, very wise, very good'; but it will not go with a Verb. And this is the rationale of that rule which is laid down about the qualification of Participles, viz., that 'very' is not to be joined with a Participle. We do sometimes hear 'very pleased'; but 'much pleased' is more correct. Still further removed from good usage is 'very obliged,' 'very disappointed.'" Rev. Prof. John Earle, *English Prose*, etc. (1890), p. 53.

Yet not all adjectives, that is to say, none in the comparative degree, may be qualified by *very—very better* being no more English than *pretty better*, which I have heard in Scotland; while, as to superlatives, it is inadmissible to introduce them with *a very*, *all very*, *any very*, etc. Moreover, in numerous cases we are not debarred from putting *very* before an active participle employed adjectivally, as when we say *very accommodating*, *very alarming*, *very amusing*, and the like. Thus much only in passing, and to supply what Professor Earle would not dispute.

Since "M. C. L.," like many who have preceded him, inquires whether English usage sanctions, as in *very pleased*, the prefixing of *very* to a perfect participle constructed predicatively, the ensuing quotations, as furnishing materials for a reply, are here relevant:

"At first he did come to my Lord *very displeased* and sullen." Samuel Pepys (1662), *Diary*, etc. (ed. Rev. Mynors Bright, 1875-79), vol. i., p. 474.

"Athenæus's Account is *very circumstantiated* on this Head." *Common Sense* (1737), vol. i., p. 232 (ed. 1738).

"When I received your letter, I was *very concerned* to hear the death of your friend Mr. Reynolds, which I consider as a piece of affliction common to us both." Sir William Jones (1760), in Lord Teignmouth's *Life*, etc. (ed. 1806), p. 22.

"I thank God my mind is *very composed*." Miss Elizabeth Carter (1778), *Letters to Miss Talbot*, etc. (ed. 1809), vol. iv., p. 197.

"In the mean time I am very feeble and *very dejected*." Dr. Johnson (1784), in Boswell's *Life*.

"I am *very composed*, and think," etc. William Cowper (1784), *Works* (ed. 1835-37), vol. v., p. 116.

"He was *very composed*, and desired me," etc. Mrs. Burton, *Laura* (1797), vol. i., p. 257.

"He had been *very exposed* to weather, sleeping out of doors," etc. Robert Southey (1815), *Letters* (1856), vol. ii., p. 421.

"She was *very vexed* to find," etc. "They were *very frightened*." Sir G. W. Dasent, *Popular Tales from the Norse* (1859), pp. 199, 499.

"Thorkel was *very vexed* at the deed." *Id.*, *Gisli the Outlaw* (1866), p. 12.

"We get *very wearied* of the persistent identification of the Church, throughout the dark ages, with fraud, and imposture, and sinister self-seeking," etc. Mr. John Morley, *Voltaire* (1872), p. 306.

"The trolls were *very put out*." Sir G. W. Dasent, *Tales from the Fjeld* (1874), p. 213.

For coming reference, quotations are subjoined in which passive participial adjectives are qualified by *very*:

"*Very reformed critics*." Rev. Myles Davies, *Athenæ Britannicæ*, vol. i., p. 191 (1715).

"Homer . . . has delivered to us some *very concealed* and valuable *information* in these two admirable poems." Thomas Taylor, *Pausanias* (1794), vol. iii., p. 300.

"The Church is a *very altered and deteriorated profession*." Rev. Sydney Smith (1837), *Works* (ed. 1850), p. 639.

"A *very frequented coffee-house*." Earl of Carlisle, *Diary*, etc. (1854), p. 332.

"Certainly [it shows itself] after a *very concealed manner*; so concealed that no man has been able to find it." Thomas De Quincey (1857), *Works* (ed. 1863), vol. vi., Preface, p. xvi.

Add, from the stores of every-day parlance, the combinations instanced below:

A very accomplished musician, and so, with the qualificative *very*, *affected style*, *animated scene*, *broken voice*, *celebrated poet*, *complicated machine*, *concentrated form*, *confused story*, *constrained manners*, *crowded house*, *curtailed account*, *depressed mood*, *devoted son*, *dignified bearing*, *dissipated fellow*, *distinguished theologian*, *distracted look*, *disturbed state*, *enlightened understanding*, *exaggerated estimate*, *exalted birth*, *exhausted condition*, *experienced physician*, *forced interpretation*, *guarded language*, *heated discussion*, *hidden meaning*, *isolated situation*, *labored argument*, *learned scholar*, *lengthened detail*, *limited number*, *noted person*, *perplexed narration*, *reduced income*, *retired spot*, *satisfied look*, *studied civility*, *tired brain*.

Gibbon, the historian, wrote, in 1762:

"His excessive praises . . . of a certain living critic and divine disgust the sensible reader as much as the contempt affected for the same person by many who are *very unqualified to pass* a judgment upon him." *Miscellaneous Works* (ed. 1814), vol. iv., p. 113.

Hardly more tolerable than *very unshaken by temptation* is *very unqualified to pass*; *very unqualified*, in whatever construction, striking one like a false note. At the same time, a considerable number of passive participial adjectives of the negative class may idiomatically follow *very*. Such are, with others, *unaffected*, *uncivilized*, *unconcerned*, *unconstrained*, *uncultivated*, *undecided*, *undeserved*, *undignified*, *undisguised*, *unexpected*, *unguarded*, *unlearned*, *unlimited*, *unmeasured*, *unpolished*, *unprincipled*, *unsettled*, *unsophisticated*.

The established currency—whence, as a consequence, the legitimacy—of phrases, uncomplemented or complemented, like "I saw he was *very pleased*," "We shall be *very pleased to come*," "They are *very pleased with your attention*," by no means invariably coincides with the idiomaticalness of the perfect participles which they embody, allocated adjectivally. No conclusion can be drawn from the permissibility of "a *very pleased expression*": convention alone is here determinant. "A *very displeased look*," "a *very dejected mien*," and "a *very exposed situation*" are, unquestionably, good English; and yet Pepys, Dr. Johnson, and Southey, as cited above, offer violations of usage quite as flagrant as those which have been instanced from *Common Sense*, Sir William Jones, Sir G. W. Dasent, and Mr. John Morley.

Very displeased, as has been seen, was used as long ago as 1662; but of *very pleased* the earliest occurrence that I have chanced on dates back only a century. Nor, up to our own day, however common in the colloquial dialect, has it been often ventured in any literature but that of a light character. A few selected quotations for it are subjoined:

"Betty . . . looked *very pleased* at several passages, particularly when you talked about your infant." William Roberts (1792), *Looker-on* (1794), vol. i., p. 179.

"I am *very pleased* indeed." Cardinal Newman (1841), *Letters* (1891), vol. ii., p. 380.

"I should be *very pleased* to do so." Mrs. George Grote (1862), quoted in the *Saturday Review*, vol. xiv., p. 602.

"A boy who has been *very pleased*, if the squire," etc. *Saturday Review*, vol. xv., p. 297 (1863).

"He was *very pleased* with the reception you gave him." "I am *very pleased* to have heard what you have to say." Mr. John Morley, *Rousseau* (1873), vol. ii., p. 95, and p. 153, note 1.

The *Looker-on* puts *very pleased* into the mouth of Belinda Daub, one of "us dashing women"; and the locution has been, all along, in the main a femininism. Yet there seems to be no doubt that its popularity, despite the avoidance of it by many persons of fastidious taste, is on the increase. Such being the case, its promotion, by and by, to the rank of unexceptionable English may be accounted a possibility, if not a probability. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, Sept. 3, 1892.

P. S. With regard to three expressions spoken of in the body of this letter, namely, Sir William Jones's *very concerned*, Gibbon's *very unqualified*, and the Rev. Sydney Smith's *very altered*, I may add that, though adduced, in a recent dictionary, and alone there adduced, as analogous to *very pleased*, they were previously quoted in my *Modern English* (1873), with specifications of their sources.

As could be evidenced, at least a dozen makers of books and others, by the way they have handled little philological nuggets of my unearthing, have practically made light of the good old maxim *suum cuique*. Some odd day they may find themselves pilloried in an index. And here, to illustrate the low commercial view of plagiarism, I will relate an incident.

In a work of mine, not often consulted, there is an excursus which, it some years ago occurred to me, a gentleman now dead, Col. F. Cunningham, who was then preparing a new edition of Ben Jonson, was, in all likelihood, unacquainted with. Accordingly, I dropped him a line about it. Curious to see it in detail, he applied to a bookseller for the work in question, telling him for what purpose it was required. The tradesman, on sending it, sent also a note, of which I made a memorandum. All but in its very words, Mr. H. was quite unknown to the literary world; so that it would be perfectly safe to utilize, as if original, his interesting and valuable discovery. The note was passed on to me by its recipient, with such comments on it as a sense of honor could not but dictate. The fact which Col. Cunningham learned, in consequence of my writing to him, was, that I had reproduced, in *Modern English*, twenty-four verses by Ben Jonson, addressed to James Mabbe, which had escaped all the dramatist's editors.

Notes.

A TIMELY publication is the collection of 'State Papers and Speeches on the Tariff,' edited by Prof. F. W. Taussig and to be published by Harvard University through Henry Holt & Co. (and certain other houses). The five documents from Hamilton, Gallatin, R. J. Walker, Clay, and Webster give the pro and con of the protective controversy. The

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volume is designed for collateral reading in colleges.

Among forthcoming issues by the Scribners are 'Under the Evening Lamp,' essays by Richard Henry Stoddard; 'Letters to a Young Housekeeper,' by Mrs. Bayard Taylor; 'The Children of the Poor,' by Jacob A. Riis; 'The Great Streets of the World,' by many writers, with illustrations; 'American Illustrators,' by F. Hopkinson Smith, with colored plates on Japan paper, and other illustrations, in a numbered edition; 'American Humor,' by J. Barr, in the "International Humor Series"; 'Life and Letters of Washington Allston,' by Jared B. Flagg, with copies of his illustrations; John Addington Symonds's 'Life of Michael Angelo,' in two volumes, with fifty illustrations; 'French Art,' contemporary, by W. C. Brownell; 'Blackfoot Lodge Tales,' by George B. Grinnell; 'Afloat and Ashore on the Mediterranean,' by Lee Meriwether; A. Weismann's 'Germ-Plasm: A Theory of Heredity'; and 'Songs about Life, Love, and Death,' by the late Anne Reeve Aldrich.

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'Social Life in England from the Restoration to the Revolution,' by William C. Sydney; 'Round London, Down East, and Up West,' by Montagu Williams; 'The Reminiscences of Charles Santley,' the famous baritone; 'Edward Burne-Jones: A Record and Review,' by Malcolm Bell, with specimens of this artist's work; 'An Old Woman's Outing [in England],' by Miss Yonge; and 'The Theory of Wages and its Application to the Eight-Hours Question,' by Herbert M. Thompson.

A new classical mythology, 'The Gods of Olympus,' by Katherine A. Raleigh, will shortly be published by Cassell.

A holiday edition of the Poems of Helen Jackson is announced by Roberts Bros.

'The Real and the Ideal in Literature,' essays and poems by Frank P. Stearns, will be brought out by the J. G. Cupples Co., Boston.

Ginn & Co. will have ready this month 'Progressive Pamphlets for Learning to Read Latin,' by Prof. J. B. Greenough of Harvard.

Thomas Whittaker promises a new and complete edition of Père Lacordaire's conferences at Notre Dame de Paris.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have in press 'Interlinear Short-hand,' by F. S. Humphrey, and 'Greeley on Lincoln,' edited by Joel Benton, who brought to light the notable judgment of the President by the editor of the *Tribune*. This address will be supplemented by many letters from Mr. Greeley to Mr. Dana and to a lady friend.

Coincident with the appearance here of Thoreau's notes on 'Autumn,' announcement is made in England of the immediate publication of a posthumous volume of essays by Richard Jefferies, who has been rashly termed the "English Thoreau." This volume is to be called 'The Toilers of the Fields,' and will consist mainly of essays dealing with the agricultural laborer, although it will also include a story hitherto unpublished. It will have the imprint of the Longmans.

We had overrun our reckoning in the case of Roberts Brothers' smaller edition of Jane Austen's Novels. Two volumes, 'Persuasion' and 'Northanger Abbey,' testify to the pretty series not having been exhausted when we last wrote about it.

Mr. Parkman's 'Oregon Trail,' still fresh in its third decade, demands a new edition for the sake of an alliance between the text and the pencil of Mr. Frederic Remington, an artist with quite other aptitudes for portraying the aboriginal and other inhabitants of the Far West than those possessed by Darley when illustrating Cooper's "Leatherstocking Tales." As Mr. Remington's drawings are well known to the reading public, not much need be said about the present illustrations. Being reproduced by process, they are the cause of the shiny paper which is so trying to the eyes when used for letterpress. The leather cover, with its stamped Indian symbolism, is as appropriate as it is rich. We should have asked one other boon—a map showing the "Oregon trail" in its relation to the now peopled wilderness. In his preface to the edition of 1872, Mr. Parkman could speak of his great history of France in America as only half accomplished. Now that it is all behind him, he may feel like reprinting it in detail, with the embellishment of contemporary maps and portraiture, and photographs of the permanent landscape. Such an edition could not fail to be highly prized.

A handsome little volume of reprints from the *Century Magazine's* "Topics of the Time" bears the title of 'Cheap-Money Experiments in Past and Present Times.' This exposition embraces, besides our own country, England and France and Argentina. Special chapters are devoted to the dismal experience of Rhode Island, Michigan, Alabama, and Mississippi. The instruction and warning thus conveyed can be thought needless in no section of the Union.

The Putnams add two timely volumes to their series of economic publications. Under the title, 'Taxation and Work,' Edward Atkinson collects papers of his on the tariff and on currency. They give ample scope to his powers of investigation and comparison and statement, and contain many hard sayings for those who are responsible for our present economic and financial policy. In a homelier vein, and perhaps all the better fitted thereby for popular reading, is Mr. Daniel Strange's 'The Farmer's Tariff Manual, by a Farmer.' It is filled with economic science fused into common sense, and, with its vigorous grip on reality, should have much weight with the special audience it addresses.

The author of the very useless 'Curiosities of Christian History prior to the Reformation,' Mr. Croake James (London: Methuen & Co.), says of it: "I have left out all the miracles—most of the wordy war of doctrines—most of the atrocities of persecutors and inquisitors." In fact, miracles would average about one to a page; for the other omissions we thank him, and can only regret that he did not carry his self-command to the point of omitting all the rest of his book. A more silly hodge-podge of undigested old-wives' tales it would be difficult to imagine.

The 'Lehrbuch der Kirchengeschichte' of the late Prof. Wilhelm Moeller of Kiel forms one in the series of theological *Lehrbücher* now appearing from the press of Mohr in Freiburg. It finds itself in such company as Harnack's 'History of Doctrines' and De Saussaye's 'History of Religion,' and is thoroughly worthy of it. There is no other book equally useful to the student in gaining a view of the development of church history as a part of the general course of human progress. Its translation into English, 'History of the Christian Church A.D. 1-600' (Macmillan), is to be heartily welcomed, especially as it has been made with scrupulous regard to the intention of the author. If there be a fault, it is that here and there Mr. Rutherfurd's adherence to the original produces a certain clumsiness of style that may prevent due appreciation of the book by a public which demands readableness even in a text-book.

'Die französische Politik Papst Leos IX.,' by Wilhelm Bröcking (Stuttgart: Göschen), is a very neat presentation of the relations between the Curia and the French kingdom on the eve of the great conflict of the Investiture. Its purpose is to show that Leo IX., one of the cleverest politicians that ever filled the papal chair, was fully aware of the conditions in France which made his claims possible, and was prevented from enforcing them thoroughly only by the pressure of other affairs. The boldness of his action in France was warranted only by his intimate alliance with the Emperor; and yet this very aggressive policy could not fail, if carried out as it was later by Hildebrand, to set the Emperor as well as every other temporal prince most distinctly against the papal interest.

Two more of Mr. W. M. Griswold's 'Descriptive Lists of Novels and Tales' have been issued by the compiler in Cambridge, Mass. 'Life in France' has been succeeded by 'Life in Germany' and 'Life in Italy.' So this useful work of guidance to wise selection proceeds from country to country and from continent to continent. Judging from bulk alone, the countries just named have been quantitatively exploited for the English reader in the order of mention.

There is nothing in the letterpress of the second number of the Boston "quarter-yearly review of the liberal arts called the *Knight-Errant*" that will repay much attention, but the most may be bestowed on the editor's "Some Thoughts upon Beauty in Typography, suggested by the work of Mr. William Morris at the Kelmscott Press." Mr. Morris, it is well known, has exercised his decorative talent in the direction of typography, and is turning out volumes from his press of which the type, the initial letters, the borders, etc., are his own invention. The experiment is an interesting one, and Mr. Morris is in his element in rehabilitating the past, though he has seldom had such good grounds for the attempted revival. As it is, he is in danger of fantastical, not to say fanatical, imitation; and we should apply either epithet to his 'Nature of Gothic' and 'Defence of Guinevere,' of which the *Knight-Errant* gives sample pages. They are not readable. Mr. Morris will have done enough if he endows us with strong and virile fonts of type. We notice that a serious derangement of the types on p. 50 is to be atoned for to subscribers at the end of the volume by a substituted page; but let the proof-reader not overlook another misprint in the third line of the second extract from Paul Verlaine on the same p. 50.

A correspondent writes: "I felt the lack of only one thing in your otherwise complete and very satisfactory notice of the *Pagan Review*. A word might have been said of the emphatic way in which these younger writers have dissociated themselves from the now discredited Realistic school. They even appear to look with some scorn on science and observation, and what is merely trivial and ordinary in Nature, reserving themselves for what is ominous in her, or even supernatural. An illustration of what I mean may be seen in Mr. Fanshawe's mystical drama, on page 7, where he says: 'The thin crescent moon slowly rises.' Obviously, the scene is laid in other worlds than ours."

We spoke not long ago of an old print (time of the Fronde) reproduced in the Paris folk-lore journal, *Mélusine*, showing the "four estates," namely, the priest, the soldier, the peasant, and the judge. In his issue for September-October, M. Gaidoz is able to show, in a very interesting manner, the evolution of this idea, still in broadside form, down to the present day—much, he observes, as must

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have taken place in the Middle Ages. One example was engraved at Chartres in the early part of the present century (First Empire); a second, a colored placard, originated in Épinal under the Second Empire, with appropriate changes in the costumes, and with self-asserting verses under each figure. M. Gaidoz remarks that the workingman in our modern industrial sense had not yet ousted the agricultural laborer from his fourth estate. He anticipates the time when the *ouvrier*, who now preferably styles himself a *travailleur* because he doesn't want to work (*travailler*) any more than he can help, and who perverts the sense of the word strike (*grève*) from 'a peaceful cessation from toil' into 'a violent assault on toiling workingmen,' or what used to be known as 'brigandage,' will appear in these broadsides as the fifth estate, dynamite cartridge in hand, with the legend "I'll blow you all up," answering to the priest's "I pray for you all," the peasant's "I nourish you all," the soldier's "I defend you all," and the judge's "I eat you all."

Miss Hensman's "Dante Map" (London: David Nutt) is not the familiarly intricate chart of the depths of the Inferno and the heights of Purgatory and Paradise, but a folding map of Italy, mounted on linen, on which are marked only the places that are mentioned or alluded to in Dante's various writings and those supposed to have been visited by him—the latter a somewhat too generous list. A separate section map is added for the Gubbio and Casentino districts. The letter-press consists of an alphabetical list of the places designated, about 300 in number, with references to the corresponding passages in Dante's works, and a list of the places outside of Italy, about 200, to which Dante also refers. In spite of its elaborate ornament, the map is serviceable and interesting. It does little, however, toward what is a real desideratum and might easily be accomplished by reprint or compilation—a good historical map of Northern and Central Italy at the beginning of the fourteenth century, with such accompanying text as would make clear the confusing topography of the regions in which were carried on the Guelph and Ghibelline feuds, so disastrous for Dante's happiness and so important for the understanding of the life contemporary with him.

—The highest praise must be given to the mechanical and artistic get-up of the first number of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* (Boston, 6 Beacon St.). No magazine of like form now published in this country equals it in elegance. The rubricated cover is a great success; the variety of type, the proportions of the page, have equally well been studied. A strong pencilled portrait of the late Dr. Henry I. Bowditch serves as frontispiece; and this warm-hearted physician, who had mastered "the humanities" if ever Harvard graduate did, has his useful life sketched in full sympathy by Dr. Charles Follen Folsom. The leading articles manifest the somewhat impromptu nature of the enterprise, for which purveying had to be done in the college vacation. Whether or not we have a deliberate precedent in the printing of Prof. W. J. Tucker's Phi Beta Kappa oration of June 30, there can be no doubt that the editors were glad to have this material to their hand. President Eliot tells of a very important undertaking of the Harvard Faculty to examine, on demand, the quality of the instruction at preparatory schools, for the private behoof of principals and trustees, and with no engagement to admit their graduates on certificate. We feel the very pulse of the machine when we come to such elaborate reviews as that of the University during the past five years, by W. C. Lane, and that of the academic year 1891-92 by F. Bolles—a model performance. But also we have condensed reports of the meetings of various associations at Commencement time and of Commencement itself; a review of the year's athletics (there is a paper, by F. W. Thayer, on "Harvard's Loss of Athletic Prestige"); an account of the constitution and doings of Harvard Clubs all over the country; a budget of class news, of university notes, literary notes, and obituaries. Every point seems covered, though already the matter pressing for admission exceeds the space, and the friends of the magazine can congratulate themselves on the eminent capacity of its conductors. A better first number has seldom been seen. The magazine will be published quarterly at a low subscription price. A wide circulation is assured, and so is the moral and material advantage which must accrue from this authoritative yet unofficial and untrammelled medium of communication for all Harvard men.

—The leading article in the *Atlantic* for October is a discussion of the character and career of Mr. Tilden, by Mr. James C. Carter. Mr. Carter confines himself to a eulogy of Tilden as a reformer, and an analysis of the character of his mind and the nature of his aims. The choice he made in respect to his duty at the opening of the civil war, though not justified by the event, may be explained by the political forecast he then made; the ability he displayed in dealing with questions of administration involved necessarily, perhaps, limitations of power in respect to larger moral questions such as were at issue during the struggle; and Mr. Carter succeeds in showing the political sagacity, the logical penetration and persistency, and the capacity to rise above party considerations and to rely upon the fundamental grounds of right government, which were conspicuously displayed in his career in this State. The serious articles in the remainder of the number are Prof. Shaler's plea for better roads, attention to which he thinks has been determined by the bicycle, an invention which he classes with the telegraph and the railway as an influential element in the intercommunication of society; and a paper by Mary A. Jordan on women's colleges, in which the development of female education from the old-fashioned seminary, where the first lesson was in the rules of the institution, to the present highly organized colleges at Northampton and elsewhere, is traced, and the nature of the special problems arising in the education of bodies of young women together is examined. Some strong verses by Clinton Scollard should be mentioned.

—*Harper's* observes the Columbian celebration by an elaborate article on "The Baptismal Font of America," in which the most interesting illustration is a copy of the page of "Cosmographiæ Introductio," in which the name America is first mentioned. A paper on Columbus by Prof. Dr. S. Ruge, with a copy of the map used by him on his first voyage, is also noticeable among the many articles on the great discoverer now appearing. Theodore Child contributes a characteristic paper, pleasantly illustrated, on the banks of the Seine, and Mr. Laurence Hutton continues his "Collection of Death-Masks," in the illustrations to which will be found several interesting examples of what we can only describe as the skulls of illustrious men. It is melancholy to find the Easy Chair empty; we have been so long accustomed to the kindly and graceful words which were spoken there that it is hopeless to expect that any other hand than that to which we are used should satisfy us, and one closes the magazine with the feeling that the loss which it has sustained in the death of Mr. Curtis is irreparable, and that with him the pleasant afterglow of Addison, Steele, and Irving, so long continued in our western sky, now fades out.

—The most important article in the *Century*, perhaps, and certainly the one which should attract most attention, is Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks's discussion of the use of money in practical politics. The facts which he spreads upon the page are not new, but they are apprehended in a vague way by the public as something that is said rather than as something capable of definite knowledge and statement; he gives specific illustrations of the objects and methods of corruption by the use of money in elections; he shows plainly enough that both parties are equally implicated, and he argues that the politicians on either side resort to such means of influencing results from a feeling of necessity in social conditions, rather than by choice. The only remedies he suggests are such as are embodied in the electoral laws of England, by which corruption there was practically put an end to at a single stroke. He points out that the immediacy of the result in England was mainly due to the searching minuteness of the provisions of the law, and he warns us not only that the objection made to such laws on the score of their intricacy and the near way in which they effect personal action, is the readiest resource of those attached to present methods, but also that concessions to this objection would be most fatal to the efficiency of such proposed legislation. The present time is most proper to call attention to such abuses, and the frank confession which Prof. Jenks makes of our faults in this respect should be an incentive to good citizens to reinforce the efforts now making toward reform. Columbus and the World's Fair continue to be important topics, and the account given of the Paris Commune, by Mr. Archibald Forbes, is a very vivid picture.

—*Scribner's* contains two papers of unusual interest. Mr. Paul Ford's extracts from the diaries of Thomas Jefferson, illustrating the homely and unheroic side of his life as a practical man concerned with accounts, make a very entertaining and instructive contribution not only to our knowledge of the man, but to our apprehension of the times. There is much in the paper that would bear quotation, but the extracts which show the income of Jefferson and his care for small expenditures, are the more striking, and the destruction of the tradition of the great heat of the day on which the Declaration was adopted, though a minor matter, affords an excellent illustration of the doubt that should go even with records of so-called historical facts. Jefferson, whose scientific tastes are abundantly shown in this paper, recorded the temperature of the day as follows: "July 4, six A. M., 68 degrees; nine A. M., 72¼; one P. M., 76; nine P. M., 73½." The second paper is Mr. Andrew Lang's summary of the present state of the Homeric Question, in which he argues for the personality of Homer from a literary standpoint, shows that it was quite possible that Homer set down his compositions in writing, and in general endea ors on the one hand to cut away the grounds of doubt out of which the Homeric question originally grew, and on the other

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hand the explanations by which the needs of these supposed circumstances are met. Mr. Bunner writes on the Columbian Exposition; Mr. Brownell continues his papers on French Art; Mr. Pete writes a monograph on the education of the deaf and dumb; and Mr. Spearman contributes, in the series on "The Poor in Great Cities," a description of a school for street Arabs which affords another encouraging illustration of the present chief movement of philanthropy.

—The doubt thrown upon the La Cosa map by our Paris correspondent on a preceding page is a new instance of modern historical scepticism. M. Marcel's argument, if he ever gives it at length, may be more convincing than this report of his views. La Cosa was *not* "an educated Spaniard." There is good reason to believe he was a Basque, though born on the Iberian side of the Pyrenees, and if so he was really a foreigner in Spain. The second argument amounts to nothing as it is put. The Portuguese portolano of 1520, which Prof. Hamy owns, is more than once referred to by Harrisse, in his recent book, and there ought to be a facsimile of it made. If the "green globe" is really so early as 1513, it will dispute the claim of the so-called Da Vinci gores to be the earliest known in which the word "America" is written by human hand. The "globe doré," if correctly dated, is the earliest instance, after Franciscus Monarchus of the year before, in the revival of the notion that North America and Asia were one. It would be interesting to have the proofs that Verrazzano's experiences had inspired this globe. Does it contain the "Sea of Verrazzano"? The charts of Viegas, Guttierez, Le Testu, and others are not a revelation; they are all well known in reproductions. The description of the map from the Navy Department (No. 131) is not sufficient to indicate its identity with known maps, as might have been done had our correspondent told us that it was identical or not with any in the published lists of Harrisse and Marcel. Franquelin's map of 1688 was not the earliest by that cartographer to show the name of Chicago in some form. An earlier map of his, dated 1684, shows it. This was formerly in the Archives of the Marine in Paris, but has disappeared of late years. Parkman fortunately had a tracing of it made some years ago, and this is now in the Parkman collection of maps in Harvard College Library. The Paris Committee would have done well if they had solicited a copy of it. Franquelin's Boston map of 1697 is only one of several in the Archives of the Marine, made at a time when the French were contemplating an attack on that New England town. A copy of this of 1697 was made some years ago for Parkman, and is reproduced in the 'Memorial History of Boston.' An earlier one of 1693 has been traced for the Boston Public Library and a facsimile published. We are inclined to think the 1639 map of New York has not been described before. It is to be hoped that Harrisse in due time will publish his Champlain map of 1608, for it antedates Lescarbot's by a year and cannot but be of importance. The first distinct details which we have had, heretofore, of the St. Lawrence region have been found in Lescarbot. Our correspondent is in error in supposing that but three copies of the Columbus volume of 1502 were made. There were four, if not five. Two copies were sent by Columbus to Oderigo, one of which is now in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs at Paris, and is the one mentioned above; the other is preserved in the palace of the Municipality at Genoa. A third copy, which Columbus sent to Hispaniola, has disappeared. The fourth was destined for Father Gorricio, the friend of Columbus, and is now lost, unless it be the copy picked up by Edward Everett in Florence in 1818, and now in the possession of Dr. William Everett. This last, if not the same as the one intended for Gorricio, makes a fifth copy.

—To-morrow is the date set for the first performance of the second season of the Independent Theatre Society of London. Whether this society will succeed in bringing about the regeneration of which Mr. William Archer has lately declared the modern English drama to be in such sore need, yet remains to be proved. Its objects, however, are conducive to the higher interests alike of the stage-manager and of the play-writer. Though single in purpose, they are threefold in character. As set forth by the founder, Mr. J. T. Grein, in his report of the society's first season, they are, first, the production of original, unconventional, and literary plays of an artistic rather than commercial value; second, the testing of such plays and the facilitating thereby of their incorporation in the répertoire of the regular theatres; and last, the giving to aspiring actors and actresses a hearing in parts in all respects suited to them. A careful and impartial perusal of all MSS. submitted is also promised. Besides the arrangement by Mr. William Poll of Webster's "Duchess of Malfi," with which the Independent Theatre will begin its second season, two new and original plays are definitely announced to follow. One is by Messrs. Walter Besant and Walter Pollock, who have voluntarily come to the support of the society. The other will be from the pen of Mr. George Moore, who has accepted a challenge to write a play towards the production of which by the Independent Theatre Mr. George R. Sims will contribute £100. If the funds of the society (partially derived from subscriptions, which range from two and a half pounds to half a pound for a single seat for the season) will admit, other plays for the coming winter and spring will be selected from "The Wild Duck," by Ibsen, translated by William Archer; "Bertha Malm," by Oscar Wykander; "Thora," by Alphild Agrell, authoress of "Karin"; "Honor," by W. G. von Nouhuys; "The Father," by August Strindberg; and a new play by the author of "Die Ehre." The character of the audiences of last season sufficed to prove that at least a portion of literary London was interested in the ambitious venture of the new society.

SULLY'S HUMAN MIND.

The Human Mind: A Text Book of Psychology. By James Sully, M.A., LL.D. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 1892. Pp. 501, 393.

THE human mind seems to be receiving its full share of attention from the hands of our generation. Hardly are Messrs. Baldwin's and James's two-volume works out of the press when Prof. Sully's comes upon their heels, and we are told that the end is not yet. It is to be hoped that the demand may not flag before the supply does. Prof. Sully enjoys now the distinction of being the only Englishman of this generation upon whom the mantle of Bain and Spencer may be said to have fallen. These leaders of mental science in England still live and write, but their psychologies belong to their earlier years, and (though still indispensable to the professional student) may fairly be called superannuated so far as the demands of the general reader go. Prof. Sully, on the other hand, though less original than either of these authors, is more receptive and open, and has given us, in this his latest work, the fruit of a lifetime of conscientious study, in which every discussion is brought down to the latest dates. Though in this the range of reading displayed is admirable, the bibliographic references are distinguished for their serviceable character, and never lapse into pedantry. The book is no mere enlargement of the author's well-known 'Outlines of Psychology,' but an independent treatise, and still leaves the 'Outlines' to perform their useful function as of old.

The first volume, after eighty pages of preliminary generalities, treats of sensation, attention, and the various intellectual functions, such as discrimination, perception, memory, imagination, reasoning, etc. The second deals with the feelings, emotions, instincts, and volitions. The whole subject-matter is thus covered in a pretty even way, though one is immediately struck by the subordinate importance which the various experiments made of late years in the physiological laboratories have for the author's mind. He knows them, and refers to them abundantly, but he rarely describes or discusses them in detail; and he gives us not even a single one of those "agreeable woodcuts" to which Lotze somewhat ironically alludes as the indispensable adornments of contemporary psychologizing. This inadequacy on the physiological side is probably not wholly voluntary, for Dr. Sully evidently takes most kindly and naturally to introspective work. His book may indeed fairly be regarded as the very last word of introspection at the present day; and one's judgment of the definitive value of introspection (considered as a mere analysis on the descriptive plane of *what goes on* in the mind, as distinguished from an attempt to get at the *causes* of what goes on) may well be determined by the impression which the reading of it leaves.

The psychology proper of the treatise begins with the subject of Attention. In thus giving the most prominent place to what appears as the spontaneous element in our mental life, Prof. Sully is in agreement with Messrs. Ward and James and in striking contrast with the traditional British school. This chapter is perhaps the very best of all, and might indeed be called classical. The author shows clearly the muscular strain which all attention involves, but admits that it also involves subexcitement of sensory processes. He delicately and completely describes all its relations and variations; shows how on the one hand it arises in feeling (in the shape of interest), and on the other contains the germ of all conation; and is finally both "analytic" and "synthetic" in regard to objects, some of which our attention decomposes, while it groups many others into a single whole. The author, following this course of ideas, next treats of discrimination, assimilation, and association, or, as he calls them, of Differentiation and Integration. And here, it seems to us, he falls from his best to his worst. The previous chapter sharply and clearly assigned on the one hand the physiological conditions with which attention coexists, and described on the other hand its function as regards the mind's object—as when, for instance, the thing attended to grows more intense, clearly limited, and better remembered thereafter. But by the baleful words differentiation and integration, one never knows whether physiological condition, cognitive function, or mental process itself be meant. What but mystification can result in the mind of the student who is told to apply

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the idea of the segmentation of the ovum to the mind and think of the emergence of distinctness in consciousness as "differentiation"—differentiation at first not clearly conscious, but gradually developing into a true discrimination of objects from each other in various definite respects? Or what real insight of any kind does one gain from regarding consciousness of similarity as a "higher form" of "what may be defined provisionally and roughly as the process by which like sensations or other psychical contents 'attract' one another and tend to combine or coalesce"—such coalescence being namable as "Assimilation," and "all assimilation being thus a mode of uniting or integrating"?

All through the book we find the words "integration" and "synthesis" harped upon in this obscure way, as if they stood for something definite and explanatory. We cannot but think that Prof. Sully's singular receptiveness of mind has here led him astray, and that in his desire to include in his book all that is good and true anywhere, he has thought that duty to the Spencerians on the one hand and to the neo-Kantians on the other obliged him to pay homage to their favorite words. Such words, like differentiation, are but vague descriptive epithets for the mind's *function* of learning to know the objective world both more *en masse* and more in detail as life goes on. They reveal absolutely nothing as to the processes, whether neural or psychical, by which the improved knowledge comes about. Some talk of the processes Dr. Sully indeed gives, but it is, as it were, swamped in the other vagueness.

The chapter on Perception deals with the cognition of space and body, and is thorough enough to fill seventy pages. In "space" one may well be lost; and Dr. Sully, who has no fighting doctrine of his own to carry through, has studied the various discrepant authors to such a degree that simplicity is gone from him for ever. The subject is like a yard full of snow—cross it once, and the tracks are plain, but cross it back and forth often enough in different directions, and there is no making anything out. Dr. Sully, we should say, has crossed it a little too often. The strong point of his account is the minute way in which he describes the successive stages in the growth of space-perception, tactual and visual, in the individual. This bit of imaginative introspection has never been so completely written out, and our author may claim to have well rounded out the task which Spencer and Bain began. But still, a description of the order in which we come to know what is in a thing is hardly an explanation of the act of knowing itself. Such an explanation Kant, Wundt, and Spencer profess after a fashion to give; Brown, Bain, and Mill profess to give one so far as the knowing takes place through the eyes; while others, like Stumpf and Hering, deny that we can explain at all our knowledge of such essential elements of extension as its greater or less bigness, and the directions and lengths of lines within it. These, they say, are simple data of sensation. Our author admits a primitive consciousness in which "there would be something answering to extensity or spread, . . . though whether this primordial extensity when it began to be apprehended would carry with it any spatial consciousness in the form of a sense of amplitude or volume, is a disputed point, and one which, it may be safely predicted, will never be definitely resolved." Ten pages later he says that such a vague primordial voluminousness "assumes a psychological impossibility, viz., a consciousness of abstract space or room without any rudimentary discrimination of particular parts or regions, directions and distances. . . . Whatever the precise nature of the primitive 'massiveness,' it seems reasonable to conclude that it requires the *incorporation of motor ideas* before it become spatial as we understand the term. . . . It is certain that, by the play of association, motor elements become *integratively interwoven* with the primitive experience." These words are almost all that Prof. Sully has to say on the general theory of the matter; but it must be added that, in his account of perception of space by the eye, he brings out with admirable clearness the fact that by the "real" magnitudes, directions, distances, etc., of things, we mean nothing but the movements which we should have to make in dealing with them.

Of the sections on Memory, Association, Imagination, Conception, Judgment, Reasoning, Self-Consciousness, and Belief, we can say hardly anything in our brief space. The basis of much that they contain resides in the author's doctrine, already mentioned, of "assimilation," which is that every object that recurs revives its own image from out of the past, and coalesces more or less completely with it, giving rise to mere recognition when the coalescence is complete, and to articulate recollection when it is not so. "Association by contiguity" is preceded by this preliminary step of assimilation of the present "idea" with the image of its own past self, just as in Prof. Höffding's and other authors' accounts. In association by similarity the revival is of an image similar to, but not identical with, that of the present object; and of this process, Dr. Sully says, "the sole assignable ground is the functional activity of assimilation itself. . . . We may speak of 'the attraction of similars.' . . . The attractive force resides in the fact of similarity" (pp. 330-2). By successive assimilations a cumulative effect is produced, a superposition of similar ideas, out of which generic images result (p. 414). These are not true concepts yet, since they lack that mental separation and demarcation of their several perceptual constituents which yields common or general qualities to the mind's grasp, and this analysis and abstraction are processes of more active and reflective thought. In all this we cannot say that our author has been original; and it may well be doubted whether, in his treatment of similarity as a "force" whose functional activity is the prime cause of the laws of revival, he is on a healthy track. To the present critic the Hartleyan doctrine of mere brain-habit seems much more full of promise as a dynamic speculation. Sully, of course, admits the existence of association by mere habit between the images revived by similarity and whatever ideas they suggest, but of its causes as facts of a cerebral order he has but little to say (p. 192).

The account of pleasure and pain which begins the second volume is one of the best parts of the book, being both clear and full. The chapters on the emotions are also very good, while the hundred and fifty pages that give the natural history of volition form by far the most delicately analytic description ever written of that important function of human life. Prof. Sully frankly admits "active consciousness" as an irreducible element, allying himself in this to Wundt, Külpe, and others. We have it in all conation, desire, aversion, attention, and reflective thought. Its physical condition would seem to be muscular contraction (p. 173), though Prof. Sully seems a little hesitant on this point, since he admits a consciousness of central innervation as possible (p. 174), and at the same time speaks of intellectual activity as if that might yield a feeling distinct from that of its muscular accompaniments (p. 178). In his description of the rise of voluntary from involuntary movement Dr. Sully, on the whole, treads in Bain's steps, though he makes certain concessions to the less hedonistic school. There are definite instinctive impulses, he admits, which precede accidental experiences of pleasure; but they are fewer in number than is sometimes maintained, as, for instance, by James, whose list is called "almost grotesque." Pleasure or pain, once felt, gives rise to desire; and desire, involving representation of an end, is the germ of will. But desire is only for the pleasantness or relief from pain which the object desired may bring. Excellent accounts follow of deliberation, decision with effort, and the sense of freedom, in which Prof. Sully of course takes deterministic ground. The last section contains a number of rather brief discussions of such matters as individual character, genius, dreams, insanity, etc., and the work concludes with forty pages of appendix on various theoretic points.

The total impression it leaves is that for learning and power of introspective description the author is unsurpassed, but that his rare open-mindedness and lack of aggressive quality give him a vacillating tone, where several opinions are in the field, that must often prove bewildering to the student. His formulas too often try to satisfy all the theories at once. Moreover, to the present critic so much detail of introspection seems often but a wearisome over-elaboration of things already obvious. The first-comer who imagines something pleasant and then desires and gets it, knows already as much of the essence of volition as Prof. Sully's account can give him. What we should all like to know would be the *forces* concerned. Is the desire itself one of them, or does all the dynamism belong to the mere organic machine blindly working? Into such questions Prof. Sully does not go; and yet if psychology is ever to become scientific, as other sciences are scientific, it must mainly concern itself with causes. The causal relations between the body and the mind form its central problem; and the physiologists and pathologists who are burrowing, however crudely, in that direction, seem to us on the whole to be on a path of greater ultimate promise than the more classical one of describing results, upon which Prof. Sully so skilfully keeps his feet.

JAPANESE ECONOMICS.

Japans Volkswirthschaft und Staatshaushalt. Von Karl Rathgen. Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot.

JAPANESE economics and finance, while they have engaged the best talent of the native Japanese, have not thus far awakened much interest in foreign students. A few incomplete studies in the Proceedings of the Asiatic Societies are all we have of value in this department outside of newspaper records. The financial and economic portions of Rein's works are meagre and antiquated. Dr. Mayet, the veteran worker, and Dr. Fesca, while they have made admirable special researches, have given us no general description or historical account of the development of Japan. Dr. Rathgen, therefore, had a comparatively unexplored field of investigation, or at least a field not thus far systematically surveyed.

The author, as financial adviser to one of the Tokugawa nobles, had exceptional opportuni-

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ties for the study of his subject, and he has evidently taken special pains to turn them to account. The volume is the result of eight years of careful research in the most minute as well as the most general matters of economic interest. In many cases he has unravelled complex and mysterious transactions which were bewildering even to contemporaries. For Japan during the last thirty years has been a country of quick transitions, of a bureaucratic and somewhat oligarchic government, often forced to shifts and evasions that were designed to conceal the true nature of certain transactions; and it is hardly to be wondered at that the student, after pursuing his problem for some time, gives it up in despair. The present volume is most satisfactory in this respect. Every matter of historical importance is traced with a clear and unerring instinct through all its mazes and changes to its final end. For this quality of distinctness and completeness the author deserves no common praise.

Dr. Rathgen's work is divided into three parts. The first book is taken up with a résumé of the history of the State from the earliest times to the present. Considering the great deficiency either of good histories or of critical materials, the author has given a most excellent account of the development of the Japanese system of government. The most attractive portion of the book naturally deals with the transition period from the feudal system to the centralized government of to-day. In America all is transition; it is difficult to fasten on any period that has definite characteristics for any length of time. We are always looking forward to a new condition of things, and a state of expectancy can hardly be considered a base line for comparison. In Japan, civilization under the Tokugawa régime, though not unmodified by internal forces, had reached a stage of comparative stability. Hence, the revolution of 1868 implied not only a break with the past, but a great change of direction, which is leading the country farther and farther from its old moorings. Briefly speaking, the people of old Japan, from the Daimio to the Eta, were in a condition of status—industrially, custom replaced competition; politically, clan feeling overruled patriotism. The feudal system displayed its weakness after Perry's expedition in 1854, and especially after the entrance of foreigners in 1860. The restoration of the Emperor to power in 1868, and the abolition of the clans (*han*) two years afterward, were followed by a complete political transformation of the Government, based mainly on the French system.

In the second book the author gives a general survey of the economic and industrial condition of the country, beginning with the distribution of population, and finishing with the difficult problems of wages and incomes. In this book there is much that is curious and interesting to the Western reader.

"In Japan are to be found only small holdings. A farm of five *cho* (twelve acres) is considered very large. As a rule the Japanese farmer is without hired labor and without cattle. The family alone cultivates the farm, which, however, is so small that a large share of the available labor can be devoted to other purposes besides farming, such as the production of silk, indigo, tobacco. The average holding for the whole of Japan (excluding the Hokkaido) for each agricultural family is 8.3 *tan* (about 2 acres), varying from a maximum of 17.6 *tan* in the prefecture of Aomori to a minimum of 5.3 *tan* in the prefecture of Wakayama."

A double crop, however, on much of the land enables the farmer by the most assiduous industry to eke out an existence. Another remarkable fact is, that out of a total area of 28,837,000 *cho* for Japan (excluding the Hokkaido and other islands) there are only 4,669,000 *cho* of cultivated land, or about 16 per cent. For the whole Empire the percentage shrinks to 12 per cent. Germany, on the contrary, has 43 per cent. of its area cultivated, and France 50 per cent. We may ascribe the smallness of this fraction in part to the mountainous character of Japan, but also in part to the extraordinary devotion of the people to rice cultivation. Much land that would delight the heart of an American farmer is left neglected and uncultivated in Japan.

The third book, treating of the finances and financial history of modern Japan, is on the whole the most interesting in the volume. Japan's financial history comprises in the space of twenty years nearly all the experiments that have been tried in Europe and America during the last two centuries. Depreciated paper money, speculation in gold, stock-jobbing, railroad, canal, and shipping crazes, wild and impracticable enterprises of every description, have followed each other in such quick succession that one is surprised that the country weathered the storms. But the backbone of Japan, like that of France, is the peasantry. Their plodding, patient activity counteracts a multitude of financial sins and has enabled the Government successfully to escape shipwreck. Even the peasantry, however, were tainted to a degree by some of the innovations, especially in the era of depreciated paper money in 1877-1884. The usual accompaniments of an over-issue were present. Times were flush, speculation was rife, every one was confident and enthusiastic; foreigners had furnished Japan with a mysterious key to the stores of wealth, and foreigners were consequently lionized. This was the heyday of Japanese prosperity. Farmers received high prices for their products and paid their taxes with ease. They fell into habits of luxury and of borrowing relatively large sums of money at usurious rates of interest. When the reverse came, as it always comes, the farmers could not find the means of payment, and many had to sell their lands and become jinrikisha-men or coolies in the large cities; others remained slowly and often hopelessly struggling with their debts.

When measures were finally undertaken to return to a specie standard, the difficulties encountered were far greater than the previous benefits received. The way of the transgressor is hard—afterwards; at first it is as easy as floating with the current of the stream. As usual, too, much of the evil was ascribed to the wicked speculator and his machinations in the stock-market. The Government ordered all speculation in gold stopped, but Japanese brokers have as much finesse as those of other nations.

"During the entire year 1883," says Dr. Rathgen, "there was war between the police and the brokers. The latter simply abandoned the Stock Exchange and speculated in secret on the curb. The business was carried on by pressure of hands inside of the large Japanese sleeves. Between Osaka and Kobe, speculators in gold managed to send quotations by optical signals from the mountain tops. All efforts of the police to stop speculation were fruitless, and every rumor was taken advantage of as before to produce violent fluctuations; and only when resumption was clearly in sight did the speculation in gold gradually cease."

Admirable as are the impersonal and expository parts of Dr. Rathgen's work, he indulges a few prejudices unbecoming a man of science. The chief of these is directed against Count Okuma, Minister of Finance during the trying period of the Satsuma Rebellion, and later, in 1889, the unsuccessful hero of Treaty Revision.

"Okuma," says Dr. Rathgen, "was versatile but superficial, clever but without solid training. . . . His chief qualities were temerity and levity; he ordinarily under-estimated actual difficulties, and never considered the consequences of his acts if he could but temporarily overcome present obstacles; a man of shifts and petty expedients, as untruthful as any one in the East, a politician but no statesman. Convinced of his genius for finance, he was pleased to hear himself called the 'Gladstone of the Orient.' He thoroughly understood how to put his best services in their brightest light and to lightly brush aside failures."

The guiding principle of Okuma, according to the author, was "Take the advantage of the moment. *Après nous le déluge.*"

These unsparing terms contradict the judgment of some of the soberest foreigners in Japan. Men who have worked with Okuma both in the Finance and Foreign Departments declare him to be a man singularly truthful and straightforward; more than this, he is said to be a man devoid in a great measure of that diplomatic evasion and indirectness so characteristic of Japanese officialism, and to some extent bred in the very bone of the Japanese. Those foreigners who have been longest and most intimately connected with the Count are most attached to him, and have not failed to testify to his qualities of courage, truthfulness, and directness. We must set it down to personal bias that Dr. Rathgen has thus denounced a man who has perhaps done more for modern Japan than has any other statesman except Count Ito. In that dim future when the history of the *Meiji* period is written, Okuma and Ito will doubtless be the "double star which the most powerful instruments will not entirely separate."

Imperial Federation. By George R. Parkin. Macmillan. 1892.

THIS is the best argument yet put forward in favor of the object to which the author has devoted years of thought and of travel throughout Greater Britain. He freely admits his indebtedness to Sir Charles Dilke and to others who have written on the same subject, and indeed the excellence of his work is due rather to its condensation and its lucidity than to any noteworthy originality of thought. From the English point of view there is enough to be said in favor of Imperial federation to warrant a numerous body of supporters in England. As Mr. Parkin points out, England is so dependent on other countries for the necessaries of life that, if a barrier were placed round the island, the pressure of want would be felt within six weeks. A large percentage of these necessary supplies is now drawn from the colonies, and the amount could be almost indefinitely increased if English capital, under the safeguard of some scheme of federation, were freely invested in the development of colonial production. But either England is not fully alive to the importance of this question of food supplies, or capital is rendered timid by doubt as to the political future of the colonies; so that, for example, the development of the Canadian Northwest, which is capable alone of meeting the larger part of the deficiency, proceeds in languid fashion. Again, the immense amount of English capital already invested in India, Australia, and Canada would seem to supply a sufficient reason for an enthusiastic acceptance on the part of England of the idea of federation; for if the colonies are allowed to drift away and become independ-

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ent States, the safety of English investments might, under certain circumstances, be seriously impaired. Moreover, Mr. Parkin suggests a further advantage to the mother country in the creation of a grand council, composed of representatives from all parts of the Empire, and competent to deal with all Imperial questions, which could leave the local parliaments free to attend to the great mass of local legislation. Questions concerning the more distant parts of the Empire would thus be dealt with by those best fitted to decide them, and the result could hardly fail to be beneficial. From the selfish point of view, therefore, it might reasonably be expected that England would enthusiastically support the idea of Imperial federation; yet the very reverse is the case. Whether this is due to ignorance or to carelessness, or to an historical hesitation to urge upon colonies any course of action which seems to be unpopular, Mr. Parkin does not undertake to decide.

From the point of view of the colonies, however, the advantages of federation are not by any means so obvious. In the first place, federations are always difficult. It is easy to say that united Germany and united Italy are stronger and better governed than the strange collections of sovereignties which they succeeded; but the kingdoms of Germany and the states and cities of Italy were compact bodies, whereas the colonies of England are strung like a necklace round the globe and embrace every variety of climate, race, and religion. In these widely differing regions the feeling of the people towards federation seems to vary between indifference and decided hostility. In no one colony is there anything like enthusiasm on the subject, except on the part of a few individuals. Mr. Parkin very truly observes that "great countries with an assured future cannot always remain colonies"; but the alternative is not necessarily what he would like to see. The majority of the inhabitants of Australia, for instance, seem to have arrived at the conclusion that they will neither remain colonists nor will they accept the burdens and responsibilities of Imperial federation. They are eager to try self-government, and are confident that in case of trouble they can protect themselves quite as well as England can protect them. In Canada the position is somewhat different. Owing, perhaps, to comparative propinquity, there is much more sentimental loyalty to the British connection in Canada than in Australia; but there is certainly no enthusiasm for Imperial federation, and there is at least a feeling favorable to annexation to the United States, which finds occasional public expression, however small the number of those who share it.

Mr. Parkin insists that Canada is essential to the federal scheme. He is a Canadian himself, and he gives a chapter each to Canada, French Canada, and Mr. Goldwin Smith, on whom his animadversions are severe. His work is really an appeal *pro domo sua*, and a tract against annexation. This explains, on the one hand, his tolerance for the National Policy of protection, which has checked the gravitation of Canada towards its bigger neighbor; on the other, his exaggeration of the difference in political purity on this side of the border and on that. While superficial or prejudiced observers may regard the recent scandals in Quebec as an isolated case, those who are truly familar with Canadian politics are aware of a corruption that would challenge the admiration of a Dudley or a Quay. Had our spoilsmen, accordingly, a motive for promoting the annexation of Canada, they would have no cause to dread a preponderating accession of moral forces such as strive against them here. Mr. Parkin, finally, makes the most of the loyalty of the Canadian French, and of their repugnance to annexation for fear of being swallowed up in the great Anglo-Saxon Republic. He implies that he thinks their holding their own in Canada not a bad thing for the Dominion, and he is certain of the want of permanence of the French-Canadian colonization of New England.

Inherited loyalty; high rank in the world's total of tonnage afloat; a friendly transcontinental route for British troops to be used in Asiatic waters; a capacity to furnish the whole of England's need for grain and much of its meat supply—all these things are little likely to avail against natural affinities and tendencies such as exist between Canada and the United States. The sensible postal union of the two countries typifies that community of interest which the National Policy and the McKinley tariff work against as long as "manifest destiny" permits—and no longer. The constant migration at all points from the Dominion to the States tells the same story. Mr. Parkin's audience slips away from him while he addresses it. What motive could England have for multiplying artificial barriers to this spontaneous fellowship; or, supposing Imperial federation once accomplished on Mr. Parkin's lines, what could she do to prevent Canada from withdrawing from it in obedience to a higher power than loyalty? British statesmen of a non-jingo stripe may be trusted to prize Canada more as an integral part of a friendly United States—freed alike from the schoolboy traditions of hatred growing out of our wars, and from the cowardly protectionist tradition of industrial and commercial rivalry—than as the keystone in a dubious arch of semi-detached colonies.

The Elements of Statics and Dynamics. By S. L. Loney, M.A., Fellow of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, and Lecturer at the Royal Holloway College. Part I. Elements of Statics. Part II. Elements of Dynamics. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

THE elementary text-books in the various departments of mathematics which have been published in England during the last decade in continually increasing numbers, have all been characterized by a tendency which is constantly becoming more and more prominent. The number of "examples" and "exercises" is ever increasing. The student is called upon to read little and to work a great deal. The ability to solve problems is the final test of his proficiency. Mr. Loney's two little treatises are fair, though by no means extraordinary, specimens of this tendency. His small book on Statics contains 630 "examples"; his still smaller book on Dynamics contains 470; besides these there is a large number of examples worked out in detail to illustrate the meaning of the text, and to serve as models for the student in his assaults upon the unsolved 1,100. The first and most obvious inference from these facts would be that English writers and teachers had become impressed with the necessity of subordinating theory to practice. Deftness and readiness in the application of principles would seem to be considered of more importance than clear and exact notions in regard to the principles themselves. So far as the authors of text-books are concerned, this inference would be unjust. While there is a manifest effort to compress the text into the smallest compass, there is also an anxious striving to attain clearness and precision in the statement of principles. But felicitous illustrations and abundant "examples" are the matters on which the author chiefly relies for the success of his book.

Now, the prominence of this feature in recent text-books is not due to any particular change in the notions of teachers as to the best methods of instruction. They have not become suddenly conscious of the importance of the practical applications of knowledge. The real cause is political rather than pedagogical. When the English Government, forced by the pressure of public opinion, determined to pursue a new method of making appointments to the civil service, the plan adopted was, in its most essential feature, a matter of necessity, not of choice. Under the old system the character and ability of the applicant were matters of subordinate importance. The personal, political, and social "influence" of his backers was the potent factor. The mass of the people complained that the civil service was almost entirely confined to the kindred and the protégés of the nobility. Public opinion demanded that applicants from all classes should stand an equal chance and "the best man should win"; that point being granted, "competitive examinations" followed as a matter of course. The objections against them, however weighty, were all out of place unless accompanied by the proposal of some better system, and no one had any better system or, in fact, any other system at all to propose.

The method of competitive examinations having been decided upon, it necessarily followed that the examinations must be written, not oral. From an oral examination it was impossible to eliminate the suspicion of personal, political, and social influence. The ability to excel competitors in a written examination has thus become an indispensable requisite for the attainment of the great majority of positions in the civil service. The results of this system in the civil service of the Government have been so satisfactory that it has been reported in the public press that several of the great financial and commercial institutions of London are considering the propriety of adopting the same system in filling vacancies in their offices. All this necessarily has a great influence upon the methods of instruction in the English schools. The object of an old-fashioned "pass" examination was to ascertain whether the pupil would probably be able to "worry through" the next higher grade. Now the probability of his finding it necessary to enter the lists of a competitive examination is continually increasing, and there is a consequent increase in the severity of the "pass" examinations. For these reasons the prefaces of many recent text-books, and among them Mr. Loney's, contain lists of the examinations which the author of each has more particularly had in view in its composition, and, under each examination, a statement of those portions of the work which are indispensable to success and of those which may be safely omitted.

As the number of candidates who hope to be successful in a competitive exmination for a position in the civil service increases, the examinations necessarily become more severe. This increasing severity has often been attributed to a desire on the part of the examiners to confine the competition to such candidates as, from the wealth and social position of their families and friends, have received a liberal education. But this increasing severity is a necessary result of the system itself. When

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there are ten candidates for one position, all of whom in their physical and moral character are unexceptionable, the only way of deciding the matter is by increasing the severity of the examination until nine of them fall behind the tenth. In the department of mathematics a written examination for the most part is necessarily made up of theorems to be proved and problems to be solved, and hence many of the recent text-books call attention to the fact that a large number of their examples have been taken from papers used in actual civil-service examinations.

As the system of competitive examinations extends, the tendency of text-books to become more and more like collections of graded examples will also grow, and the question naturally presents itself, What will be the effect upon the progress of the science of mathematics? Most people would, perhaps, be inclined at first to infer that mathematics must become more and more of a trade and less and less of a science. Students will be more inclined to regard the text-book as a collection of rules verified by experience, and skill in the application of the rules as the matter of main importance. Philosophical generalization will become entirely subordinate to useful specialization. But even a superficial acquaintance with the history of mathematics will dissipate all fears on this head. Almost all the great discoveries in mathematics have originated in attempts to solve some particular problem. The surest road to the discovery of new truths in mathematics is skill in the application of truths already known. Of course a young man who intends to devote himself to some profession in which, as in astronomy or the various departments of engineering, the constant application of mathematics is indispensable, can hardly spend too much time in the solution of problems. But even he who intends to become a professional teacher of mathematics, and hopes some day to be able to contribute something to the advancement of the science, will never regret the time he spent in working out "examples."

In support of this opinion we are able to cite an authority which is almost conclusive. Mr. Ball, in his 'Short History of Mathematics,' has characterized Lagrange as "the greatest mathematician since the time of Newton." In another place he says of him: "Lagrange was above all a student of pure mathematics; he sought and obtained abstract results of great generality, and was content to leave the applications to others." Yet Lagrange himself, in a letter of advice to a young friend engaged in studying mathematics, urges him above all things to solve all the problems that his text-books contain. He says that he himself pursued this course in his younger days, and he attributes to it, in great part, his subsequent success. In fact, the solution of problems in large number seems to have the same effect upon the mind that the performance of the feats of the gymnasium has upon the body: in either case the immediate object in view is of very little importance, but the vigor, suppleness, and endurance thereby acquired are the best preparation for the accomplishment of really important work. On the whole, we think this increased attention to the application of general principles to particular cases will, in the end, be conducive to the progress of mathematical science in its higher and more abstract forms.

Any detailed criticism of Mr. Loney's little books would be out of place here. They have evidently been prepared with great care, and are perhaps as well adapted as any that can be obtained to accomplish the main purpose they have in view, viz., to prepare the student to pass an examination successfully.

Memorial History of New York City. Edited by James G. Wilson. Vol II. New York History Co.

THE second volume of General Wilson's History has much to commend it. It contains many interesting historical contributions, and is, besides, like the first volume, well printed and beautifully illustrated. Among the historical studies are specially to be noticed that entitled "William Cosby, and the Freedom of the Press," by Eugene Lawrence; the narrative of the part taken by New York in the Stamp Act troubles, as told by John Austin Stevens; and the chapter devoted to George Clinton and his contest with the Assembly, written by Dr. Gitterman. These are important and interesting historical events and are fully treated by these writers; but it is too much to say that special studies constitute a history, and thus far Gen. Wilson's work can be considered only a collection of such essays, of greater or less merit—only links and not a complete chain.

There are even greater faults of commission than of omission in the editorial work assumed by Gen. Wilson. A case in point is the intrusion of a list of burgomasters and mayors, from 1653 to the end of the seventeenth century, in the second volume, which is devoted entirely to the eighteenth century. This list is printed at the end of the *first* chapter (which is a study of the administration of the Earl of Bellomont, 1698-1701). Besides, the list ends at the beginning of the eighteenth century, and there the subject is dropped entirely, to be resumed again at the end of the fifth chapter, but with no mention of the mayors for the years from 1700 to 1720. At the end of the eighth chapter it is again continued, and concludes with John Cruger, who was mayor until 1734. No further reference is made to this subject, and the list is left unfinished at this point, though the second volume completes the history of the century. If these two volumes had constituted, as the title announces, a history of the city, such a list, except for reference, would have been useless; the mayor has always been the city's chief executive officer, and his name, term of office, and activities could not have been separated in a true history from the narrative of the city's growth and development, as is done in this work. If the list was furnished for reference only, then it should have been complete and continuous, and not fragmentary and scattered capriciously throughout the volume, as has been done by the editor.

The presswork, and particularly the character of the illustrations, cannot be too highly commended, but here again the editor fails to perform his duties. He reproduces everything, whether its interest is near or remote, and many of the illustrations that would be of rare interest appear without any explanation. For instance, there is to be found on page 83 an illustration of the Palace of Blenheim, reproduced only because "the present duchess is a native of New York"; and again, the ruined tower of Heidelberg (page 109) is apparently included only because "the thousands of Americans who have made pilgrimages to Heidelberg to look upon the picturesque ruins of the old castle, will hear with regret that, at the present writing, the Grand Duke of Baden is considering plans for its restoration." These are pretty and interesting views, and might properly be placed in a collection of historical pictures, but a history of New York gives no excuse for their appearance. There are already too many picture-books about old New York, and not enough histories.

Another case in point, of the reproduction of most interesting historical documents without any explanation, is a facsimile of a deed signed by Richard Nicolls in 1667. This document is of great historic interest, not only because Richard Nicolls was the first English Governor of New York, but because under him some of the old Dutch forms and customs continued to prevail, and many of the old Dutch officials were retained. The deed was evidently written by one of the old Dutch scribes, bearing on its face in the German form of the handwriting an interesting evidence of this transition. Not only does this document appear without any explanation, but it is to be found at the end of the first volume (page 583) in a list entitled "Bibliography of the New York Press in the Seventeenth Century," to which it has absolutely no relation.

A complete and carefully prepared index may, we suppose, be looked for on the completion of this work. At present the reader has to rely on his own efforts more than those of the editor to find in these volumes a history of New York.

A Footnote to History: Eight Years of Trouble in Samoa. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. Pp. viii., 332, 8vo.

SEVERAL years ago, in a speech in the Senate, Mr. Sherman characterized the Samoan question as "the smallest controversy in which the United States could be or has ever been engaged." It is the pitiful story of the later stages of this controversy that Mr. Stevenson tells in this 'Footnote to History.' In the opening chapters the actors and the scene of the events are described in strong and picturesque language. There are, on the one hand, the childlike islanders; on the other, the representatives of the three most powerful nations of the civilized world. Of these the chief actor—and offender—is Germany; while, according to Mr. Stevenson, "the States have the cleanest hands," though "even theirs are not inmaculate." The Samoans are contending for all that men hold dear—their liberty. The Germans bombard villages, destroy plantations, dethrone and exile kings, at the bidding and in the interests of a trading-firm. The islands, doubtless, would long ago have been annexed to the Empire but for the vigorous protests of the British and American consuls, backed by their home governments.

The narrative opens with the incidents which led to the deposition of the king, or head-chief, and his deportation to Europe on a German frigate in 1887. Upon this follows a series of trivial transactions which would be simply amusing from their very triviality, had they not at times been accompanied by bloodshed and the wanton destruction of property. The mere threat to kill some pigs, for instance, is magnified into an atrocity which finally assumed the dignity of an international question. The combined navies of the three Powers are called upon to punish recusant taxpayers. The story, in a word, as told by Mr. Stevenson, reads like the libretto of a comic opera; the naval captains even playing parts which vividly recall the exploits of the gallant commander of H. M. S. *Pinafore*. What heightens the humorous effect is the fact that the natives themselves, when most in earnest, still seem to be playing at war. Singular

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enough, the lack of humor or the appreciation of it in the Germans has been a frequent source of trouble in their dealings with the natives and the other whites. "Their solemnity," says Mr. Stevenson, "is accompanied by a touchiness often beyond belief. Patriotism flies in arms about a hen; and if you comment upon the color of a Dutch umbrella, you have cast a stone against the German Emperor." A traveller, on complaining of the vermin which infested a certain vessel, was suddenly and sharply rebuked. "The ship of which he spoke, he was reminded, was a German ship!"

With the disastrous hurricane of 1889, of which a fine description is given, there is "an end of violence," unless the war has broken out afresh, as recent tidings from the islands seem to indicate, over the vexed question of unpaid taxes. "Carpet incidents" alone remain to be recorded, such as the reinstatement of the exiled king with his great rival as *maire de palais*, and the establishment of a court of justice and board of land commissioners, both composed of foreigners. Yet even in carrying out these peaceful measures the Germans how the same irritating inability to adapt themselves to native customs and habits of thought which has temporarily wrecked their colony in East Africa, and has already led to new complications in unfortunate Samoa. Mr. Stevenson believes that it is in the power of the German Emperor to put an end to these troubles, and closes his book with an earnest appeal to him to give to Mataafa "a fitting share of rule." Of this chief, the successful defender of the natives' liberties, and in all things but the name the true king of Samoa, an attractive picture is given. "He is of a tall and powerful person, sixty years of age, white-haired and with a white moustache; his eyes bright and quiet; his jaw perceptibly underhung, which gives him something of the expression of a benevolent mastiff; his manners dignified and a thought insinuating, with an air of a Catholic prelate." A devout Romanist, his later life has been marked by a purity almost inconceivable in a Polynesian. The pen portraits of the whites who have been prominent in the Samoan affairs are more indistinct, probably intentionally so; but few or none of them receive such hearty commendation as this semi-civilized savage.

A certain incoherency at times marks the book, due probably to the haste with which it was evidently written, and accordingly it is not always easy to keep the thread of the narrative. Nor is sufficient allowance made for the general reader's ignorance of Samoa and its recent history. Regarded as a whole, however, it is an earnest and, from its statement of facts, eloquent advocacy of the rights of the natives by one who has lived among them for three years and knows whereof he writes.

There are many very characteristic stories and incidents scattered through Mr. Stevenson's volume, with one of which we will close this notice. During the hurricane the Samoans, at the peril of their lives, rescued many seamen from the wrecked vessels, showing no difference between the Germans, with whom they were then at war, and the Americans. They displayed remarkable honesty, also, in the restitution of the immense amount of valuable property which was cast upon the beach. On both accounts "the Government of the United States showed themselves generous in reward." The German Consul paid three dollars a head for each of his countrymen saved. In one instance this was refused. "I have saved three Germans," said the rescuer. "I will make you a present of the three."

The Livery Companies of the City of London: their origin, character, development, and social and political importance. By W. Carew Hazlitt. With two colored plates and numerous illustrations. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. xiv, 692.

THE most unsatisfactory part of this book is the long preface (pp. 1-60), which comprises an apotheosis of the Livery Companies and a rambling account of their general history. The author regards the existing companies as "promoters of almost every department of humanizing and elevating science." They have also formed "an immemorial link between commercial life and the aristocracy," because many noblemen in past times have sought membership in the gilds. For the preservation of these "old stones of London" he urges, moreover, the common English plea, *quieta non movere*, and the fact that the City of London, with its gild machinery, "is a most potential and unique factor in knitting together the classes, and in preserving from decay and oblivion the ancient hospitality of our Kings." He believes that the companies and the civic corporation "are infinitely more secure from molestation at this moment than they were ten years ago," and that a long future of prosperity is in store for them. We fear that the author's arguments will not convert many of Mr. Firth's followers.

The origin of gilds and the general history of the London companies are also considered in the preface, but only in a desultory and very unsatisfactory fashion. On page 13 we are informed that the germ of gilds was undoubtedly the old Anglo-Saxon principle of suretyship; but on page 16 their rise in England is ascribed to a foreign source, "to Continental influence and example, more particularly to the precedents set in the Low Countries and in Italy." It is difficult to understand how a writer can hold both these views; and neither of them is tenable according to the best authorities on the history of English gilds. Nor can we accept the opinion that the main ostensible justification of the sufferance or existence of the early London craft fraternities "was, not trade, but charity and alms" (p. 4). Mr. Hazlitt thinks that the feebleness of the Plantagenet Kings contributed greatly to the growth of gilds; but most scholars have rightly ascribed much influence to the strength, not to the weakness, of the Crown; it was the comparatively great power of royalty that prevented gilds and municipalities in mediæval England from assuming the dominant position or political importance which they attained on the Continent. It would thus be nearer the truth to say that the strength of English royalty contributed to the weakness of gilds, not *vice versa*.

We have also noticed some minor errors in the preface. The list of works relating to Continental gilds, on page 54, is inaccurate and incomplete. The great national collection of French chronicles and records, the 'Documents Inédits,' is cited as a work on gilds, written or edited by M. Delpit. The earliest mention of Billingsgate as a place of lading (p. 17) should be antedated about three centuries. The ordinance of 1416, enacting that no citizen should belong to more than one fraternity, was not a "new" regulation (p. 32): the same principle was enunciated in the Statute of 37 Edward III. The chief defect of the preface, however, is not the prevalence of errors (we have not discovered many), but its discursiveness and incompleteness. Notwithstanding its great length, it has almost nothing to say concerning the most interesting and instructive side of the history of the London companies, namely, their past relations to the civic corporation, and the process by which they became an integral part of the machinery of municipal government.

The preface is followed by a "General Introduction" (pp. 61-100), which is a digest of the first part of the elaborate Parliamentary returns made in 1884 by the Livery Companies Commission. Among other things, this introduction contains a general account of the present government, membership, and income of the companies. Mr. Hazlitt refers to these Parliamentary reports indifferently as those of 1880, 1882, and 1884 (pp. 39, 41, 57), which is confusing, to say the least.

In the body of his book the author gives an account of fifty-two defunct and seventy-five existing companies of London, based upon the above-mentioned Parliamentary papers and some other sources. The wide scope of the work permits him to present only the salient facts in the history of each company. He glides somewhat too rapidly over their origin and early development, and is inclined to lay too much emphasis upon references in old records to an existence "from a time whereof there is no memory." Hence he shrouds the inception of some of the leading companies in the mists of remote antiquity. He states, for example, that the Gild of Weavers existed before the Norman Conquest (p. 661), for which assertion there is no good ground. For "ministers," on page 662, read "craft" or "mistery" (the Latin is *ministerium*); for "quarterwages," on the same page, read "quarterages." On the whole, the body of the work is well written, well printed, and well illustrated. Though not the result of original research, it gives, in a compact form, a vast amount of information, not easily accessible, relating to the London Livery Companies.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, C. C. Recent Rambles; or, In Touch with Nature. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Adams, C. F. Three Episodes of Massachusetts History. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Baker, W. S. Itinerary of General Washington from June 15, 1775, to December 23, 1783. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Baldwin, James. Six Centuries of English Poetry. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Bean, F. Ruth Marsh; A Story of the Aroostook. U. S. Book Co.
Black, W. Green Pastures and Piccadilly. Harpers. 90 cents.
Blanchard's Map of Chicago. Chicago: Blanchard & Co.
Blanchard, Rufus. Columbian Memorial Songs. Chicago: Blanchard & Co.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Giovanni and the Other Children who have made Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Bynner, E. L. Zachary Phips. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Carryl, C. E. The Admiral's Caravan. Century Co. $1.50.
Case, Prof. Mary E. The Love of the World. Century Co. $1.
Cheap-Money Experiments in Past and Present Times. Century Co. 75 cents.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Addison's Criticisms on Paradise Lost. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Cunningham, Rev. W. The Growth of English Industry and Commerce in Modern Times. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Dorr, Mrs. J. C. R. Poems. Complete ed. Scribners. $2.50.
Dowling, Richard. Catmur's Cave. National Book Co.
Doyle, A. C. Adventures of Sherlock Holmes. Harpers. $1.50.
Drake, Jeannie. In Old St. Stephen's. Appletons.
Duhring, Julia. Amor in Society. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Dumas, A. Twenty Years After. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Fawcett, Edgar. An Heir to Millions. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co. $1.25.
Francis, J. G. A Book of Cheerful Cats and Other Animated Animals. Century Co. $1.
Frothingham, W., and Tower, Charlemagne. Our Book; or, Literary Rambles of a Journalist. 2d ed. G. W. Dillingham.
Fuller, H. B. The Chatelaine of La Trinité. Century Co. $1.25.

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Gestefeld, Ursula N. The Woman who Dares. Lovell, Gestefeld & Co. $1.25.
Gordon, Rev. M. L. An American Missionary in Japan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Gordon, W. J. Englishman's Haven. Appletons.
Greenleaf, Simon. A Treatise on the Law of Evidence. 3 vols. 15th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $18.
Griswold, W. M. Descriptive List of Novels and Tales dealing with Life in Germany. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Griswold, W. M. Descriptive List of Novels and Tales dealing with Life in Italy. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Harland, Marion. Common Sense in the Household. Majority ed. Scribners. $1.50.
Harris, T. M. The Assassination of Lincoln: A History of the Great Conspiracy. Boston: American Citizen Co.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. Crow's Nest and Belhaven Tales. Century Co. $1.25.
Hering, Fanny Field. Life and Works of J. L. Gérôme. Cassell. $30.
Heyne, Prof. Moriz. Deutsches Wörterbuch. Vierter Halbband. Licht—Quittung. Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: Westermann.
Hoblyn, R. D. A Dictionary of Terms Used in Medicine. 12th ed. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Hope, Anthony. Mr. Witt's Widow. U. S. Book Co.
Howells, W. D. A Little Swiss Sojourn. Harpers. 50 cents.
Howells, W. D. The Quality of Mercy. Harpers. 75 cents.
Hume, Fergus. The Island of Fantasy; A Romance. Lovell, Gestefeld & Co. $1.25.
Hungerford, Mrs. Nor Wife nor Maid. Hovendon Co.
Iliowizi, Henry. The Quest of Columbus: A Memorial Poem. Chicago: H. J. Smith.
Jones, Mrs. E. M. Dairying for Profit; or, The Poor Man's Cow. Orange Judd Co. 30 cents.
Jusserand, J. J. A French Ambassador at the Court of Charles II. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $3.50.
La Brète, Jean de. My Uncle and my Curé. Dodd, Mead & Co.
La Queux, W. Strange Tales of a Nihilist. Cassell. 50 cents.
Lea, H. C. A Formulary of the Papal Penitentiary in the 13th Century. Philadelphia: Lea Bros & Co.
Lemcke, Gesine. Desserts and Salads. 5th ed. C. T. Dillingham & Co. $1.25.
Litchfield, Frederick. Illustrated History of Furniture. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $10.
Littell's Living Age. July—September, 1892. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lodge, O. J. Lightning Conductors and Lightning Guards. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Loftus, Lord A. Diplomatic Reminiscences. 1837–1862. 2 vols. Cassell. $6.
Lomas, John. O'Shea's Guide to Spain and Portugal. 9th ed. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Lowell, E. J. The Eve of the French Revolution. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Lummis, C. F. Some Strange Corners of Our Country. Century Co. $1.50.
Mahon, Lord. Chesterfield's Letters. 5 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Marbury, Mary O. Favorite Flies and their Histories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Matthews, Brander. Tom Paulding. Century Co. $1.50.
Matthews, Brander. Americanisms and Britticisms, with Other Essays on Other Isms. Harpers. $1.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. The Medicine Lady. Cassell. $1.
Merkel, A. Vergeltungsidee und Zweckgedanke im Strafrecht. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Meyer, Capt. W. E. Wrecked on the Bermudas. C. T. Dillingham & Co. $1.25.
Morton, Oliver T. The Southern Empire, with Other Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Strange, Daniel. The Farmer's Tariff Manual by a Farmer. Putnams. $1.25.
Strickland, Agnes. Lives of the Queens of England. 8 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Theodoli, The Marchesa. Under Pressure. Macmillan. $1.
Thomas, Prof. Calvin. Goethe's Faust. Vol. I. The First Part. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.20.
Thompson, Rev. A. C. Our Birthdays. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Varigny, Henry de. Experimental Evolution. Macmillan. $1.50.
Ward, H. D. The Captain of the Kittlewink. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Warren, M. A. Almost Fourteen. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
White, Prof. J. W. The Beginner's Greek Book. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60.
Whitman, Walt. Autobiographia. C. L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Wiggin, Mrs. Kate D. Children's Rights; A Book of Nursery Logic. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Wilcox, Ella W. Sweet Danger. Chicago: F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
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